The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 14, 1887.

The Week.

THE President's letter withdrawing his acceptance of the invitation to visit St. Louis during the Grand Army Encampment at that city has produced a sensation in all parts of the country, and has unquestionably strengthened the position which he took when he vetoed the Dependent Pension Bill. It would be an entire mistake to suppose that the recent battle-flag order was the cause of the savage hostility which has broken out here and there in Grand Army circles against the President. That order was seized with avidity as the occasion for cursing, but the real cause was the pension veto. It is a question of dollars and cents that stands between the implacables and the President. It is this which has interrupted the harmony of the St. Louis celebration. Nor is this the last that we shall hear of it. A new dependent pension bill, in substantially the same form as the vetoed measure, has been brewing in all the posts, and has been approved by many of them since the adjournment of Congress. It will be introduced and pushed with all possible vigor next winter. It is safe to say, however, that its momentum will be somewhat lessened by the St. Louis incident. The people are, as the event proves, extremely sensitive to the dignity of the Presidential office, and very sure to resent any insult offered to the person who represents it for the time being. He stands for the dignity of the nation as a whole, and this is of much more consequence to them than pension bills or any other matter of dollars and cents. The great attendance upon the public meeting in St. Louis on Friday to extend him a fresh invitation as the guest of the city, and the heartiness which characterized the speeches, only reflect public sentiment throughout the country. The Republican organs may well take a warning from the words of ex-Gov. Fletcher of Missouri, who, after announcing that he was "an old Black Republican," said: "I gladly extend a hearty welcome to Grover Cleveland as a man, aside from the fact that he is President of the United States; and I say this, as my political opinions differ from his, because in every position in which he has been placed he has shown himself to be a man."

Gen. Corse, the Postmaster of Boston, has been so well known as a believer in civil-service reform that it seemed hardly possible he could suddenly have turned spoilsman; and a detailed statement of the changes which he has made since he assumed charge of the office on December 1, relieves him of such an imputation. The force under his control numbers 756 persons, and in the eight months he has removed only nineteen, or one in every forty. The grounds for these removals are given, and they appear to be ample in almost every case. In one or two instances, the friends of the removed officials make a pretty good showing in their defence, but the manifest justice of Gen. Corse's action in the majority of cases certainly raises a strong presumption in his favor in these disputed cases. We doubt if during the period when the Republican party was in power a change was ever made in the head of an office with 750 subordinates which was not followed by many more than nineteen removals within eight months; and it marks a long step forward when a Democrat, succeeding a Republican, instead of making a "clean sweep," changes only one in forty of his subordinates in two-thirds of a year.

Gov. Hill has asked for the resignations of Mr. Jay and Mr. Richmond, the two remaining State Civil-Service Commissioners. The Albany *Morning Express* professes to know that the cause is the appointment of Mr. William Potts as Chief Examiner in place of Col. Morrison, deceased. It suggests that the Governor hates Mugwumps, and cannot abide a commission under his control which would give an office to a Mugwump, but that of course he will not give this as his excuse for removing the Commissioners; that what he will say will be, that they have violated the law in appointing Potts when an "old soldier" might have been had for the place. The *Express*, however, apparently forgets that the duties of a Chief Examiner are "to act with the Examining Boards so far as practicable, at Albany and elsewhere, and to secure accuracy, uniformity, and justice in all their proceedings"—a very responsible position, calling for an amount of education and capacity which only a very small number of old soldiers in search of employment possess, and that the law provides that even old soldiers shall be qualified for the places they seek. So that, if the Commissioners are to be removed on account of Mr. Potts, it must be, we are bound to suppose, on account of Mr. Potts as a Mugwump and not on account of Mr. Potts as taking the place of an old soldier. The names of those whom the Governor appoints as the successors of Mr. Jay and Mr. Richmond, will explain his action, even if he offers no other explanation. If they are men of high character and standing, and friends of the merit system, and desirous of seeing it succeed, they will furnish an excellent answer to all his critics except in one point, and that is the inexpediency of frequent changes in the personnel of a body charged with the maintenance of a system in which practical experience of its working is the chief guide.

The report that Mr. Powderly is "worn out," and will resign his position at the head of the Knights, is received with general incredulity in Labor circles. He himself gives indirect denial to it by greatly enlarging his field of operations. He has now undertaken the task of abolishing wheat and other "corners," and of regulating immigration, and hints at a purpose of assuming control of the telegraph. His method for preventing "corners" is set forth by him as follows:

"The lesson taught our members by the experience of the last six weeks is to keep their eyes open, and to keep them turned toward the Produce Exchanges of New York, Chicago, and other large cities; and the moment the grain and produce gambler stacks the cards and announces that there is a scarcity in a certain article of food, that the price must go up in consequence, every member should resolve, and resolve out loud, that until the unhallowed hand of the speculator has been removed from the control of the article in question, not a pound nor an ounce more than can be avoided will be purchased."

That shows what a tremendous mind Powderly is. Instead of being "worn out" with the work of elevating the wages and social condition of all Labor, he is constantly on the lookout for something else to do to fill up his leisure moments.

The cause of Labor suffered a severe loss in this city last week. James Devens, a Walking Delegate, was convicted of having abandoned his wife and four children in December last, and was sentenced to six months in the penitentiary. It was proved that he had been receiving four dollars a day for his "services," and had refused to give any of it to his family. This shows what an exacting mistress Labor is. To be one of her Walking Delegates a man must abandon wife and children, and even go to the penitentiary; and the worst is yet to come, for in the penitentiary he will be required to work.

The Union Labor party and the United Labor party are coming into conflict with each other by reason of the inability of the former to swallow the land theories of Henry George and Dr. McGlynn. The Union Laborers look to the farmers for a large share of their support. The farmer considers himself too much taxed now. His vote will never be cast for a party that proposes to increase his taxes. The United Laborers propose to tax him and other landowners up to the entire rental value of the property. Hence the disagreement between the two parties. We venture to predict that the United Laborers will get the worst of it in the end, for although they are the more numerous of the two just now by reason of their organization in the large cities, they offer no attractions, but on the contrary the strongest repulsion, to the rural communities. The farming population will not only vote against the Henry George doctrine whenever they have a chance to do so, but they will fight against it if necessary.

The formal excommunication of Dr. McGlynn from the Roman Catholic communion has sobered some of his followers, but not himself. His speech at the Academy of Music on Sunday, if made by a politician, or a member of the Order of United Americans, would be called a tirade. Hardly anything in our anti-Catholic literature is more drastic than the following paragraph:

"I also said, and I also repeat, that the best way to get anything from that Roman machine is to show your teeth rather than be too humble. Bismarck and the Czar of Russia understand that, and because they have defied the Pope, when they are willing to make any kind of a half concession, the Pope is delighted. He has fallen in love with Bismarck. He has fallen into a sickly, womanish love with Bismarck, and Bismarck has been flirting with his Holiness. They have even exchanged portraits."

It will be impossible for Dr. McGlynn's friends to maintain the fiction that a man who holds

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this language towards the Pope can still be a good Catholic. He might be a good Protestant, because the essence of Protestantism is dissent in matters of religion. It will be impossible also to maintain the fiction that the Pope has been misled by false information, which he may soon correct, since there cannot be any mistake that Dr. McGlynn was summoned to Rome and refused to go. The weakness of his case from the beginning has lain in the fact that, being a priest of the Roman Church and having taken the vow of obedience, he has disobeyed an order which his superior, the Pope, had a right to issue. The comparison of himself with Galileo fails in two important particulars. In the first place, Galileo was not a priest. In the second place, the Inquisition was then in force, and the Roman authorities had both the power and the will to imprison and torture those found guilty of heresy. Nobody is subjected now to any other than spiritual penalties for spiritual offences. The truth is, that Dr. McGlynn has been treated with great lenity and consideration at Rome. It has been within his power at any time during the past six months either to convince the Pope and the Propaganda that he is right and Archbishop Corrigan wrong, or to make a serious and honest attempt to do so. In the latter case, if excommunication had followed, the non-Catholic world would have said that it was a difference of opinion which all impartial persons were bound to respect. As the matter now stands, the only prejudgment of the case has been that of Dr. McGlynn himself, who has declared that he had no confidence in the tribunal which he had himself elected when he became a priest.

Dr. McGlynn's speech contains a very significant passage, which the *Tribune* and the *Sun*, not less significantly, have suppressed. We quote from the *verbatim* report of the *Times*:

> "They calumniate me when they say I took the stump for Mr. Cleveland. It is a lie. They tried to make a religious feeling against Mr. Cleveland because he vetoed an appropriation of $25,000 for a Catholic Protectory. I should have done the very same thing in his place."

This is the first revelation "from the inside" of the reason why "they tried to make a religious feeling against Mr. Cleveland." Everybody knows of the effort, and that it was strong enough, in the secrecy which enveloped it, very nearly to defeat Mr. Cleveland. Many people also knew well enough the reason for it, but could not prove it. Now it is officially revealed by a man who knows perfectly what was going on in the councils of Mr. Cleveland's opponents in 1884. The revelation is one of the greatest pieces of Mr. Cleveland's proverbial luck. A secret diversion of the Roman Catholic vote from a Democratic candidate is a serious misfortune, but open, announced opposition on religious grounds is another matter. No better piece of luck could befall a candidate than to have it known that he was to be "jumped on" by some of our foreign citizens "because he vetoed an appropriation of $25,000 for a Catholic Protectory." Such an announcement would insure his election. Our people will not stand religion in politics; least of all will they stand the Pope in politics.

Dr. McGlynn's name heads the list of delegates from this city to the Convention of the United Labor party which is to meet at Syracuse in August. If he goes to the Convention and takes an active part in the campaign afterwards, it will be very difficult to prevent this particular wing of Labor from developing into a purely anti-Catholic organization. Henry George is doing his best to make it so now, for he is boldly taking the ground that McGlynn is a much bigger man than Archbishop Corrigan, saying that the latter will be remembered as the "Archbishop who excommunicated McGlynn." Together with this anti-Catholic tendency, the United Labor party has developed great strength among the Socialists of this city, and it is now admitted that the latter will capture at least half the delegation to the Syracuse Convention. Combined Socialism and anti-Catholicism will make a most interesting campaign issue, and we presume that the abolition of poverty will be added.

The *American Hebrew* complains, we must say reasonably, "against the improper and unjustifiable obtrusion of sectarian religious exercises into the annual commencement of the Normal College of this city." It quotes the provision of law, that "No school shall be entitled to or receive any portion of the school moneys in which the religious doctrines or tenets of any particular Christian or other religious sect shall be taught, inculcated, or practised," and rightly says that "the singing of the doxology is a distinctively Christian religious practice. It is an essential part of a Christian service. It involves a dogmatic Christian doctrine, and is, therefore, inadmissible in any school receiving money from the city of New York." Our Jewish contemporary says it will be urged that singing the doxology is but a little thing, and one certainly not to be objected to by any who make no trouble over the more important matter of reading the New Testament in the school. But the answer to this is: "In the first place, we will have our bond. The reading from the New Testament is made compulsory by a positive injunction of the act of 1851, while religious exercises are as positively forbidden by the same act." But, beyond this, the very clear distinction is urged that the reading does not implicate any pupil; it is a thing imposed from without, to be submitted to, merely; what is read may be listened to or not, it may be believed or not; whereas, on the other hand, the singing of the doxology involves active participation by all the pupils in a confession, personally made, "of belief in the triune God of certain Christian sects." We think this must be allowed to be a hardship unduly imposed upon conscientious Hebrews.

The people who are pleading for Sharp's escape without legal punishment should really back up their case with some moral consideration. It is not enough to say that he is old and that his health is poor. He was old and his health was poor when he committed the offence of which he has been found guilty. Moreover, we venture to assert that if liberated to-morrow, he would be quite well enough to do the same kind of thing again if he saw any "money in it." The people of the State of New York, after all the labor and money which have been expended in bringing him to justice, are surely entitled to turn him to some sort of account in the way of warning or example. Therefore we say emphatically that if he be, on any plea of sickness or infirmity, allowed to get off without his making one word of acknowledgment of the justice of the verdict against him, or one word of admission of the gravity of his offence, it will amount to a gross failure of justice. He has perjured himself about this matter over and over, has displayed the utmost audacity in meeting the charges, and the utmost contempt for his accusers, and the utmost confidence that he would get the better of the law—has never given the slightest sign, in or out of court, that he was sorry, or would not do it again if he got a chance. His punishment should be made to depend on his own moral attitude and not on his physical condition.

Somehow or other, there is always trouble wherever Mr. James G. Blaine goes. Something goes wrong surely. Either somebody misreports him, or says something about him, or does something to him, which necessitates "a card" from somebody, and several versions of one story. In the speech he made in Edinburgh the other day he started off characteristically with a blunder by lauding Sydney Smith as a Scotchman—Smith, who was never tired of poking fun at Scotchmen. Then he went to a meeting and could not get in, and the Lord Provost had to apologize because the doorkeeper did not know who Mr. Blaine was, and Mr. Carnegie had to publish a letter telling how it all happened. Now his friends at home are attacking the President for not having gone to the war, and therefore remaining ignorant of how soldiers feel about battle-flags, etc. This, of course, brings to mind once more that Mr. Blaine, who was in 1861 a young and lusty fellow, did not go to the war either, but occupied himself more profitably and comfortably in Washington in selling rifles to the War Department as the agent of a manufacturing company. They are reproaching Mr. Cleveland, too, with having employed a substitute, and are trying to show that the said substitute is now in an impoverished and neglected condition, which of course again recalls the fact that Mr. Blaine sent a substitute, too, who remained but a short time in the field, and was soon in a penitentiary for some infamous crime.

The Gladstoneites have substantially won another victory in North Paddington, one of the London boroughs, by reducing the Tory majority at the last election from 911 to 318 on an increased vote. North Paddington is probably one of the most thoroughly Conservative constituencies in England, and the mere fact that home rule has made any

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progress there, however small, is a striking sign of the probable drift of popular sentiment in other places. Moreover, there has evidently been some shirking among the Liberal-Unionists on the final passage of the Coercion Bill, for the majority in a full house of 611 was only 87, a serious falling off. There is a ludicrous side to these figures in the fact that, according to the Liberal-Union organs in the press, the 177 English and Scotch members who voted in the minority are Separatists, bent on dismembering the Empire, and are knowingly approving of and associating with assassins; and, more comic still, that almost half of each English constituency which votes for Gladstoneite candidates is in the same category. When one reads this stuff, one wonders what becomes of people's sense of humor in political campaigns.

The third of the elections which Englishmen have been watching with so much interest—that of the borough of Coventry—occurred on Saturday, and resulted in the election of a Liberal by a majority of 16. At the last election a Tory was returned by a majority of 405. This, following on the Liberal victory at Spalding and the Liberal gains in North Paddington, has naturally created the greatest excitement in England, as an additional sign of the turning of the tide in favor of Gladstone and home rule. The two remaining elections to come off are the St. Ives division of Cornwall, and North Hampshire. St. Ives was carried last year by a Liberal-Unionist by a majority of 2,507. Of course, the Liberals do not hope for more than a reduction of this. From North Hampshire a Tory was last year returned unopposed.

The brilliant successes of Miss Ramsay of Girton in the classical Tripos at Cambridge (where she was, like Eclipse, "first and the rest nowhere") and of Miss Hervey of Newnham, who achieved equal distinction in the Modern-Language Tripos, have revived attention to the position of women as regards the degrees and other privileges of the University. Women are admitted at Cambridge to the competition of the Honour Schools, but not to the University classes, in which the best knowledge is to be obtained, nor to the University libraries, museums, etc. When they carry off honors, the University does not give them the degree which follows honors earned by men, nor does it admit any women to the lower examination for pass-degrees. In other words, Cambridge admits women to its most trying examinations, while denying them equally the accustomed rewards of extraordinary success when won, and the best means of winning it; and as to ordinary success, such as is attainable in a pass-examination, it denies not only rewards and means, but even opportunity. This sounds very unjust, but of course there is reason for it. So far, indeed, as concerns the refusal of a degree to a woman who has beaten off all the men of the University, the reason is not obvious, but objections to the mingling of young men and young women in the classes, etc., are certainly conceivable. The most important point is the exclusion of women from the lower examination, and on this head—the objection being that the strain upon the nerves must be injurious—it is urged with some show of force that if it is not bad for women to undergo the severer test, it cannot be bad for them to undergo the easier one. This argument, however, contains the grave defect in logic known as "mistaken application." The easier test would not be bad for the same women, but the question is about other women. Those who compete for honors are a small picked lot, necessarily of unusual degree of bodily and mental strength. That they can "stay" through most severe labors by no means proves—indeed, it scarcely even raises a presumption—that the bulk of women students are fit for labors somewhat easier, but still severe.

The performances of Gen. Boulanger and his admirers are again very disappointing to those who think the French Republic can be made permanent. He has had not only to be dropped out of the Ministry, but sent away from Paris in order to prevent his becoming a dangerous popular idol at the seat of government; and on his way to his command he allowed himself to be made the recipient of demonstrations such as are usually bestowed only on a home-returning conqueror. Finally, the Minister has accused him in the Chambers of having been concerned—he, a military man in high command—in an "illegal manifestation" on the occasion of the election of a deputy. It has to be borne in mind, too, that the Radicals are trying to raise above the Government and the law a soldier who has never fought or won a battle, and might, for aught they can tell, be routed as ignominiously as MacMahon was at Reichshofen, at the very opening of the next campaign. Consequently, observers both at home and abroad are naturally asking themselves what would become of the republic if a war with Germany should now take place, and the General-in-Chief were to come back a victor, and were as vain and ambitious as Gen. Boulanger?

Protectionism is running mad on the continent of Europe, but is going at a faster pace in France than anywhere else. It has now reached the stage where both workmen and employers demand the exclusion of foreigners from any kind of work done for the Government, and from the furnishing of any kind of supplies for the public service. One bill pending in the Chamber of Deputies provides that only French coal shall be used for the navy and only French oats for the army, and in general that nothing of foreign growth or production shall be bought for public use except such articles as are not produced in France. Another proposes a tax on foreign workmen. These bills are now engaging the serious attention of the Government, and will probably pass, although some difficulties have been raised by clauses in commercial treaties. The Exhibition Committee have caught the fever. By way of promoting good feeling and insuring a large attendance from other countries, they have restricted the bids for buildings to French firms exclusively, ruling out foreign firms, even though they may be established in France and employing only French workmen. The commercial irritation between Germany and Russia grows apace. The latter having put a prohibitive duty on iron which has caused the closing of some furnaces in Silesia, the official organs in Berlin have called attention to the financial instability of Russia, and cautioned the investing public to be extremely careful how they buy Russian securities. The warning has had a marked effect on the price of Russians.

There is apparently no limit to this species of folly short of a mutual prohibition of trade. When France has reached the point of excluding all foreign products that she can possibly produce, for herself and all foreign workmen, Germany will of course not be outdone in that kind of warfare. She will fight France and Russia with tariffs just as readily as with infantry and artillery. When they are all hedged about with a Chinese wall so that nobody can sell or buy except from his immediate neighbors, they will be in the happy condition of a certain Western village settled by German immigrants, where all the people got rich by selling lager beer to each other. The French will sell their own wines and silks to Frenchmen exclusively, the Germans will do all their trading with each other, and the Russians will consume their own hemp and tallow in solemn grandeur. We, the people of the United States, know how it is ourselves. We have been trying to sell as much and buy as little as possible from foreign countries, but we never dreamed that foreign countries could play at that game also. We are finding out now that if protection is a good thing for one country, it is good for all, and that its acme will not be reached until our breadstuffs and provisions are excluded from the continent of Europe, or saddled with such duties that no profit will be left to us. The toiling millions have to pay the cost of these commercial wars as they do of the wars that are fought with cannon and bayonets. The governments, whether republican or despotic, are in the hands of those who own property, and these, having set out to secure the monopoly of sale in their own countries, can find no place to stop. Each dose of protection calls for another dose. It would seem as though the civilized world, with the exception of England and Sweden, were going back to the mercantile system of the seventeenth century. Even little Belgium has taken her dose of protection lately, and will soon want more.

The election of Prince Ferdinand by the Bulgarian Sobranye is a much less important event than it seems. He is a young and almost unknown man, probably very ill-fitted at best to steer the principality through the breakers which now surround it. But in addition to this he is a subject and dependent of the German Crown, which is not in the least likely to let him accept if Russia objects, and Russia does object strongly, and he has accepted only on condition that the Powers approve. If Bismarck says he may go, he will probably say it as he said it to Prince Alexander, with a sneer that will chill the marrow in the youth's bones before he starts.

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SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, July 6, to TUESDAY, July 12, 1887, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND had accepted an invitation to visit St. Louis during the forthcoming National Commandment of the Grand Army of the Republic; but on July 4 he wrote Mayor Francis a letter withdrawing his acceptance, wherein he said: "I should bear with me there the people's highest office, the dignity of which I must protect, and I believe that neither the Grand Army of the Republic as an organization, nor anything like a majority of its members, would ever encourage any scandalous attack upon it. If, however, among the membership of this body there are some, as certainly seems to be the case, determined to denounce me and my official acts at the National Encampment, I believe they should be permitted to do so unrestrained by my presence as a guest of their organization, or as a guest of the hospitable city in which their meeting is held." On July 8 a mass-meeting of citizens of St. Louis was held whereat an invitation was extended to the President and Mrs. Cleveland to visit the city at another time—during the Fair there. The approval of the President's letter has been almost universal.

The President and Mrs. Cleveland went from Washington July 11 to Clinton, N. Y., to attend a celebration of the founding of the town.

The Governors of New York, Connecticut, Massachusetts, Vermont, and Pennsylvania have requested the Governors of other States and of the Territories to send representatives to a conference, to be held at the Murray Hill Hotel, in this city, at noon on August 23, to devise and propose a uniform system of rules and practice in the matter of the inter-State extradition of fugitives from justice.

The Governor of Massachusetts July 8, in accordance with a resolution of the last Legislature, issued a proclamation asking the social, trade, and labor organizations to accept the invitation of the citizens of Philadelphia to send representatives to the centennial celebration of the signing of the Constitution of the United States September 17.

The Mormon Convention at Salt Lake City to draft a Constitution of the proposed State of Utah adjourned July 7. The Constitution that they drew up provides for the entire separation of Church and State, and for non-sectarian education, and forbids polygamy, providing penalties therefor. The Utah Commission will permit the votes for the ratification or rejection of the Constitution to be counted by the election judges at the general election on August 1. The non-Mormon population of the Territory regard this anti-polygamy Constitution as insincere.

Atlanta, Ga., has been selected as the place for holding a national exposition of the artistic and mechanical products of the skill of the colored race throughout the United States, beginning in November and continuing three months.

A bill has been introduced in the Georgia Legislature "to protect the rights of white and colored people alike," by making it an indictable offence for teachers and directors of the public educational institutions of the State to admit white pupils into colored schools, or colored pupils into white schools.

Logan E. Bleckley was elected by the Georgia Legislature as Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the State July 11.

Dr. Edward M. McGlynn, the priest who had been deposed for his advocacy of the George theory of land-holding, was excommunicated from the Roman Catholic Church July 8, by Archbishop Corrigan of New York. The Archbishop's letter to the clergy and laity of the Archdiocese explains his "excommunication by name" by saying that "he is cut off from the communion of the Church, from its sacraments and participation in its prayers, and, should he persevere in his contumacy, deprived of the right after death to Christian burial."

On Sunday, July 10, Dr. McGlynn made a defiant speech in the Academy of Music in this city, in which he said: "So long as Catholic people give the Pope to understand that he can do what he pleases with them, and allow an Archbishop in New York to forbid an American priest to make a political speech or attend a political meeting without first obtaining the consent of the Sacred Congregation of the Propaganda, who don't know but what Florida is a suburb of New York and Mobile a street in San Francisco—so long as Catholics let the Roman machine, of which the Pope is the mere puppet, do this, that machine will use Paddy in Ireland and German Paddy and American Paddy as pawns on the political chess-board, to be sold out at any time for what it can get in return. This policy arises from an insane and foolish lust for the restoration of the Pope's rotten old temporal power, that everybody but a fool and the Italian diplomatists at Rome knows is as dead as Julius Cæsar."

The counsel for the Andover professors have served notice on the Visitors of an appeal to the Supreme Court of Massachusetts from the recent decision in regard to Prof. Egbert Smyth. The court will meet in November.

Queen Kapiolani arrived in this city from London July 11, and here first learned of the Hawaiian revolution.

Near Nacogdoches, Texas, where six wells have been bored, one 600 and another 300 feet deep, oil was found at a depth of eighty-five feet, and is reported to flow in great abundance.

The discovery of an eight-inch vein of quartzite carrying free gold in large quantities is reported from a place near Ishpeming, Mich.

Oscar J. Harvey, recently chief of the "horse claims" division of the Auditor's office in the Treasury Department at Washington, was arrested July 8 at Wilkesbarre, Pa., and imprisoned at Washington for forging applications for payment for horses to the amount of more than $11,000.

A sloop with a pleasure party on board was capsized in a squall in Jamaica Bay, just outside New York Harbor, on Sunday, July 10, and twenty-four persons were drowned.

Fire broke out on the stage of the Alcazar Theatre at Hurley, Wis., on the night of July 9, and within an hour the business part of the town was in flames. Seventeen persons perished.

FOREIGN.

At the election for member of Parliament for the North Division of Paddington, July 8, Mr. Aird (Conservative) received 2,230 votes, against 1,811 votes for Mr. Routledge (Gladstonian). At the general election of 1885 Mr. Cohen, the deceased Conservative member, carried the district by a majority of 911 votes. The significance of the election is that the Liberals polled more, while the Conservatives polled fewer votes, not merely than in 1886, but even than in 1885; that is, there was a larger Liberal vote than there had been before home rule entered British politics. The moral effect is a defeat for the Conservatives.

At the Coventry election of a member of Parliament on July 9, a Liberal was returned by sixteen majority. At the last election the Conservative candidate had a majority of 405. The comment on this election is on the one side congratulatory, and on the other a confession of an ominous defeat for the Tories.

At an election for the seat for Dublin University, made vacant by the elevation of Attorney-General Holmes to the Irish bench July 12, there were two candidates, Mr. Madden and the Hon. Richard Clere Parsons, both Conservatives. Mr. Madden was elected, receiving 1,376 votes against 710 for his opponent.

The rebuke by the House of Commons of Mr. Matthews, the Home Secretary of the Salisbury Cabinet, for his conduct in defending the police who improperly arrested a young woman named Cass on Regent Street as a person of ill repute, has been the occasion of severe comment on the Ministry even by its supporters. On June 6 Mr. Smith announced in the House of Commons that the Lord High Chancellor would institute a thorough inquiry into the matter. Mr. Matthews on the same day offered to resign, but he was requested to remain in office until the close of the present session of Parliament. Forty-nine Conservative members of the House of Commons signed a letter to Lord Salisbury asking him to accept the resignation at once.

The Crimes Bill passed its third reading in the House of Commons July 8 by a vote of 349 to 262. On the preceding evening Mr. Gladstone, in a speech against the passage of the bill, said that former coercion measures had been aimed at crime only, but this new one, passing beyond crime, aimed at societies. If Parliament retained any regard for the traditions of liberty or of party usages, the measure would be abandoned. While resenting the imputation that the Liberals had done the same thing, he would admit that past measures had been failures. As the bill stood, if an Irishman joined an association, it was for Mr. Balfour to say whether or not he became a criminal by the act. In the whole British Empire there was not a square yard of land which England held by force alone, excepting in Ireland, where force was employed. Ireland was held by mastery, but the Government refused to learn that mastery involved responsibility. They knew that the literature of the whole world was against them.

Mr. Balfour, Chief Secretary for Ireland, moved the second reading of the Irish Land Bill in the House of Commons July 11, and provoked a long debate. A Liberal motion that the bill be rejected was pending July 12.

The House of Lords on July 7, by a majority of 11, abolished primogeniture in cases of intestacy.

The American testimonial to Mr. Gladstone was presented to him July 9, in the presence of a number of Mrs. Gladstone's guests at a garden party. The presentation speech was made by Mr. Joseph Pulitzer. Mr. Gladstone, in reply, spoke in praise of the American interest in home rule for Ireland.

A deputation of English women presented an address to Mrs. Sullivan, wife of the Lord Mayor of Dublin, July 11, asking her to assist in an agitation for the repeal of the Coercion Law.

Mgr. Persico and Mgr. Gualdé, who have been sent by the Pope to inquire into the situation in Ireland, arrived in Dublin July 8.

More evictions have been made in Ireland At Coolgraney, in Wexford, seventy families have been evicted with great hardship, and five at Woodford. The members of Parliament from the city and county of Cork, all Home-Rulers, have joined in a summons calling a convention of the Irish National League to meet July 17 to devise means to enable the tenants of Ireland to resist eviction. The tenants on Sir Alexander Jardine's estates in Dumfriesshire, Scotland, have resolved to adopt the Irish plan of campaign. They demand either a reduction of rents, a revaluation, or a release from their farms at Whitsuntide. William O'Brien, on his speech-making tour through Scotland, provoked many expressions of approval of his Bodyke policy, and large subscriptions for the Bodyke fund were made.

Mr. John Bright, in a speech before the East Indian Association July 8, advocated the admission of the natives of India to the highest positions in the civil service. This extension of the civil service, he thought, was a part of the principles contained in the proclamation issued by her Majesty at the end of the Mutiny; and it would be better if England tried whether a moral sentiment and a Christian

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principle would not prove to be a greater permanent influence than continued aggrandizement.

England has obtained for her imports into Cuba and Porto Rico the same treatment till the end of the year as is accorded American imports by the Spanish-American Convention.

The report made by Sir Edward Thornton and Mr. Braithwaite respecting their efforts to obtain some adjustment of the Virginia debt satisfactory to the English bondholders, is that there was no sincere desire on the part of the Virginian representatives to arrive at any settlement on terms other than such as the State might dictate.

Mr. Andrew Carnegie, the Pittsburgh iron manufacturer, on July 9 laid the foundation stone of a new free library building in Edinburgh, his birthplace, for the endowment of which he gave $250,000. Mr. J. G. Blaine was present and made an address.

The French Cabinet on July 7 decided to dismiss from office all French mayors who were in any way concerned in the royalist manifestations in honor of the Count of Paris during his visit to the Isle of Jersey. The Count returned to England on the 6th. The *Gaulois* reported that in bidding farewell to his friends, after advocating silence, the Count said: "You may be sure we shall win before long. Monarchy will come without violent effort and by a gentle transition, for our organization is in training and everything is ready. The new Government will get into immediate working order, and on the eventful day I, helped by all good Frenchmen, shall be King."

When Gen. Boulanger went from Paris, July 8, to take charge of his command at Clermont-Ferrand, a great popular demonstration was made in his honor. Many houses and newspaper offices were illuminated, and his departure was delayed for an hour by a vast crowd. They carried him to the railway station, and he was surrounded by so many persons that he was obliged to ride on a locomotive to Bercy, where he took a train. He was even much bruised by the enthusiastic attentions of his admirers. The demonstration made a sensation, and was regarded as a possible forerunner of further manifestations during the coming July national fête and review. The Government organs condemn Gen. Boulanger for permitting it, and warn the Republicans of France to beware of such a dictator as he would be. When he arrived at Clermont-Ferrand the houses were gayly decorated in his honor, and the streets were lined with troops. He was greeted with shouts of "Vive Boulanger!" In replying to an address of welcome by the municipal authorities, he said: "Yes, I am a Frenchman and a Republican, and I am deeply interested in the welfare of the army and the greatness of the country."

These demonstrations provoked a stormy discussion in the Chamber of Deputies July 11. The Premier, M. Rouvier, declared that Gen. Boulanger was concerned in the illegal manifestation on the occasion of the recent election of the Deputy for the Department of the Seine. It became necessary, therefore, to remove him from his political surroundings and to return him to his proper station. If the civil power had hesitated, M. Rouvier declared, it would have been all over with it. M. Clémenceau condemned the demonstrations, but maintained that Gen. Boulanger's popularity was that which the Chamber would have had had it resolutely entered upon the work of reform.

The Committee of the French Chamber of Deputies having in charge the measure imposing a tax on foreigners residing in France, notwithstanding the objections of the Minister of the Interior, decided in favor of the measure on July 6. The *North German Gazette* (Berlin), referring to this tax bill, declared on the same day that the moment seems to have arrived for Germany to consider whether all the anti-German measures which are being carried out in France should not, in a fully reciprocal manner, be enforced in Germany, especially in Alsace-Lorraine.

At a meeting July 8 of the Board of Directors of the Panama Canal Company at Paris it was decided to issue 500,000 new shares at 440 francs, bearing 30 francs interest, and reimbursable at 1,000 francs in forty-eight years, by bi-monthly drawings. The subscription will open on July 26, for one day only, in Europe and America, 30 francs being payable on application, 70 francs in August, and 75 francs every quarter afterwards until the full payment is completed. M. de Lesseps said in a letter to the shareholders that 100,000,000 francs of the last emission still remain in the company's coffers, but that prudence demands a new emission in order that the company may not want money suddenly at a later moment. He maintains that with the sum of 600,000,000 francs authorized by the Government the canal will be finished.

The total amount received for the benefit of the sufferers by the recent Opéra Comique fire in Paris, up to July 7, was 673,000 francs.

Prof. Virchow's latest report on the condition of the throat of the Crown Prince of Germany is that the growth last removed proves to be, more clearly than previous pieces, a hard compound wart, issuing from a moderately irritated and compressed surface. Its basis does not give the slightest ground for the belief in the existence of a new formation of the invading tissue.

Two of the men tried at Leipsic for treason to the German Government in betraying military secrets to the French were found guilty, and sentence was pronounced, July 7, of nine years of hard labor on one, named Klein, and five years on another named Grebert. Klein protested that he had committed no base crime, but that his chief offence consisted in being caught. "Punish me," he exclaimed, "as a French spy. I was born a Frenchman and am no German traitor." A witness who was suspected of aiding one of Grebert's witnesses to escape, committed suicide. The Procurator declared that the trials had shown that the frontier police not only countenance treason, but incite it. The Frenchman Schnaebelé, whose arrest by German police came very near being a *casus belli* between France and Germany, has been appointed to a higher position at Laon.

A measure that has already been much discussed for the insurance of workmen against want in their old age is ready for the German Reichstag. It proposes a minimum annuity of 120 marks, which may be claimed by workmen when they reach the age of seventy years or when they are hopelessly invalided. The Imperial Exchequer is to pay one-third of it, and the other two-thirds are to be paid in equal amounts by employers and employees, associations paying for their members.

The issue of the first 100,000,000 marks of the new German loan was subscribed for seven times over July 7. The applications of Berlin subscribers alone amount to 400,000,000 marks.

Two unpublished letters from Luther to Brentz, and five from Melanchthon to the Swabian reformer Lachmann, have been found in an old desk in a school at Heilbronn.

Prince Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha was elected Prince of Bulgaria by the Sobranye July 7; and it was reported that if the Powers refuse to recognize his election, the Sobranye intend to abrogate article 3 of the Berlin Treaty and proclaim the independence of the country. On the 9th the Sobranye adjourned. All the leading Russian newspapers express disapproval of the election and pronounce it the result of Austro-German intrigue, and urge the Porte to intervene and the Powers to withdraw their representatives from Sofia; and the Coburg *Zeitung* (semi-official) said: "In view of the attempts of the Bulgarian party of independence to draw Prince Ferdinand into its confused affairs, we must point out the fact that a German prince such as Prince Ferdinand cannot accept a crown without the permission of the head of the house to which he belongs, nor without the consent of Emperor William; and until their consent is obtained nothing can be settled." The Austrian press is a unit in congratulating the people of Bulgaria upon the election.

It was announced July 12 that the Emperor William on July 24 will meet the Emperor Francis Joseph at Gastein. Until this meeting the policy to be adopted about the election of Prince Ferdinand will not be determined. It was reported from St. Petersburg July 12 that Turkey had approved the election of Prince Ferdinand.

The Bulgarian Regents have tendered their resignations, regarding their task as finished by the election of Prince Ferdinand. The Sobranye refused to accept the resignations, desiring to await the return of the delegates who went to visit the Prince. All the Ministers have resigned, and a new Cabinet has not yet been formed.

A new Bulgarian Cabinet was announced July 11, of which M. Stoiloff is President of the Council and ad interim Minister of Finance. He telegraphed to the prefects of the departments ordering them to release all political prisoners.

A great fire was reported from Vitebsk, Russia, July 11, whereby 413 dwellings, the police offices, six school-houses, and a bank were destroyed, many people were made homeless, and property to the value of 2,000,000 rubles was lost.

It was reported on July 12 that there had then been 200 cases of cholera at Catania, of which 140 proved fatal. The disease has broken out also in Sardinia.

A land slide at Zug, Switzerland, July 6, precipitated a part of the town into the lake. Many houses were engulfed and as many as 100 persons, among them the President of the Canton, perished.

The latest news from Stanley, the African explorer, is that on the journey beyond Leopoldville he found great difficulty in replenishing his commissary. The threatened scarcity of provisions made a number of his men insubordinate, and it became necessary to punish them with much severity. Stanley himself was ill from the excessive heat.

A fire in the Citadel at Quebec on the night of July 6, spread rapidly and burned ammunition wagons, guns, and many stores, and made its way towards the magazine where a large quantity of powder was stored. A number of bombs were exploded, and there was great consternation because of the imminent danger of the fire's reaching the magazine. After a hard night's work it was checked.

On the night of July 9 the steamer *Merrimac*, from Halifax to Boston, was wrecked at little Hope Island, off the Nova Scotian coast. The passengers lost all their personal effects, and suffered from cold and hunger, but none perished.

The dissatisfaction with King Kalakaua's government of the Hawaiian Kingdom culminated on June 30. A mass meeting of citizens of Honolulu, in which residents of American birth took the most prominent part, having organized a military company, and practically seized the Government, demanded of the King the dismissal of his Cabinet and the appointment of another, to consist of persons whom the meeting named, the restitution of $71,000 bribe-money which the King had taken, and a pledge "not in future to interfere, either directly or indirectly, with the election of representatives, and not to interfere with or attempt to unduly influence legislation or legislators." Kalakaua in great trepidation acceded to all these demands and was allowed to retain the crown. No violence had been used when the last boat, which arrived at San Francisco July 9, sailed. Along with the fear of violence, there was a hope that the scheme of a constitutional monarchy would prove successful.

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THE GRAND ARMY MACHINE.

THE Grand Army of the Republic came into existence not long after the close of the war. The organization was established with good motives and for excellent purposes. It was intended to bind together in the bonds of friendship the survivors of the Union Army, and to furnish a convenient medium for relieving members who fell into distress, and for preserving from suffering the families of those who died in want. It appealed forcibly to the sympathy of the public, and enjoyed its respect.

It was not long, however, before ambitious politicians perceived that such an organization might easily be prostituted to partisan and personal ends. The majority of the members were Republicans, and it was plain that if the leaders of the order in any State could secure its backing for their ambition, they could establish strong claims to the favorable regard of Republican conventions. The rank and file of the order also came to see that if they should present a "solid front," they could make demands upon legislators and Congressmen which time-serving officials would readily honor. If the Grand Army endorsed a particular pension scheme, for example, the vengeance of the whole body could be invoked upon any man in public life who interposed any objection to its becoming a law. Both the officials and the privates of the Grand Army thus came to see that the organization offered excellent opportunities for promoting selfish purposes.

The good-natured public, busily occupied with its own affairs, was slow to realize the possible dangers which lurked in such an organization so conducted. There was need of some pointed action by the Grand Army, as a body, to open the eyes of the country to its real character. The President's vetoes of sundry private pension bills for unworthy claimants, and of the Dependent Pension Bill for an immense army of such claimants, served this purpose. The latter veto was no sooner announced than Gen. Fairchild, the head of the Grand Army, issued orders to have all posts express their views upon it, with the evident purpose of bringing such a pressure to bear upon Congressmen who at heart opposed the bill, as would force them to vote to pass it over the veto, against their convictions. The veto having been sustained by Congress, as it was by the country, the leaders of the Grand Army set at work to frame a new bill of the same sort, and to have this measure endorsed by the organization, so that Congress might be frightened into passing it and the President into signing it. As a means of "showing their power," the managers next began abusing the President for having done what he conceived to be his duty, and threatening him with insult and even personal violence if he should accept his invitation to the St. Louis encampment. Gen. Tuttle, who is the commander of the posts in Iowa — the State that will probably be most largely represented at St. Louis—declared a month ago that he knew the feeling of the Grand Army, and that they would "snub and insult him," and hinted that there was "a good prospect of there being trouble" if Mr. Cleveland should attend the encampment. A fortnight later, Gen. Fairchild seized the excuse of the battle-flag order to break forth with his invocation of "three kinds of palsy." That no doubt might be left that such blatherskites as Tuttle were entitled to speak for the order, the posts in Iowa have been passing resolutions heartily endorsing his utterances.

The result of all this is, that the public is coming to understand the real character of the organization. It is no longer a benevolent institution working for unselfish ends; it has become a machine for the procuring of pensions and offices. It is easy to see how this has come about. The whole membership of the organization, which is now placed at 350,000, is not much more than one-fourth of the whole number of surviving Union soldiers. This one-fourth includes almost all the self-seekers, the men who were only tempted into the army by high bounties, and the men who are always trying to trade upon their services in the war. Any one who investigates the matter will find that a large proportion of the better sort of veterans either do not belong to the Grand Army, or hold aloof from an active share in its proceedings since they have found what influences dominate it. The best proof of this is the support of Tuttle by the Iowa posts. Soldiers who deserved the respect of their fellow-citizens would be quick to repudiate such talk as Tuttle's, instead of commending it.

Fortunately, the danger of serious harm from the Grand Army has been removed by the exposure which it has thus made of its character. If it were universally supposed to be an association of old soldiers devoted unselfishly to the public interests, its weight might be thrown with tremendous force for or against any measure or any man. But when it is seen to be an organization chiefly concerned in extorting undeserved offices and pensions for unworthy members, its endorsement or its condemnation is of little moment. No body of men can present a Tuttle and a Fairchild as its perfect flower, and long retain the confidence of the American people.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND AND THE SOLDIERS.

THE course of a few demagogic leaders of the Grand Army towards the President has already put that organization on the defensive, as is shown by the excuses which representative partisan Republican newspapers are already making for the course of its leaders. The *Tribune*, with characteristically vulgar mendacity, says that the President has "displayed on every occasion his cynical contempt and utter lack of sympathy for the loyal defenders of the Union cause," and "has repeatedly sneered at the Union veterans in his veto messages, and never manifested sympathy or respect for them." The Philadelphia *Press*, to excuse the Grand Army, says that it "does not object to his pension vetoes because of their number, or because of the specific cases he selected to veto"; but "the objection rests wholly on the spirit of these vetoes, their implied attack on the pension system, their grudging recognition of patriotic service."

To show definitely how false is any charge that the President has been actuated by any unfriendly feeling towards the veterans in writing his veto messages, it is only necessary to read the messages themselves, whose text papers like the *Press* and the *Tribune* take it for granted that the people have forgotten. It should be remembered that the great majority of the private pension bills which the President vetoed, covered claims which had undergone the most careful scrutiny of the Pension Bureau—a department specially organized for making such investigations—and had been rejected as dishonest or out of the list of assistable cases. A would-be pensioner, defeated in this way, then (generally at the instigation of the agent with whom he is to divide his money) throws himself on the member of Congress from his district, and induces the latter to introduce a private bill in his behalf. Hundreds of these bills come before every Congress and are passed, not in a regular session of the day and after full discussion, but at some evening meeting, when only the members interested in such bills are present, and these to the number of perhaps a few dozen; for there is nothing in the Federal Constitution requiring at least a majority of the whole House to pass a bill. In vetoing a bill increasing the pension of A. J. Hill, the President, on May 8, 1886, used this language:

> "The policy of frequently reversing, by special enactment, the decisions of the bureau invested by law with the examination of pension claims, fully equipped for such examination, and which ought not to be suspected of any lack of liberality to our veteran soldiers, is exceedingly questionable. It may well be doubted if a committee of Congress has a better opportunity than such an agency to judge of the merits of these claims. If, however, there is any lack of power in the Pension Bureau for a full investigation, it should be supplied; if the system adopted is inadequate to do full justice to claimants, it should be corrected; and if there is a want of sympathy and consideration for the defenders of our Government, the Bureau should be reorganized. The disposition to concede the most generous treatment to the disabled, aged, and needy among our veterans ought not to be restrained; and it must be admitted that in some cases justice and equity cannot be done, nor the charitable tendencies of the Government in favor of worthy objects of its care indulged, under fixed rules. These conditions sometimes justify a resort to special legislation; but I am convinced that the interposition by special enactment in the granting of pensions should be rare and exceptional."

Certainly no one can dispute the soundness of this view, nor can the warmest friend of the soldier find fault with its form of expression. It is easy to discover in the special veto messages constant repetitions of similar expressions of the President's feeling towards the deserving soldiers. In refusing to assent to a pension for Rebecca Eldridge, whose husband was killed in 1881 by a fall from a ladder, the President said: "It is not a pleasant thing to interfere in such a case. But we are dealing with pensioners, not with gratuities." In vetoing a bill granting a pension to Harriet Welsh, whose husband was killed by a fall from the cars in 1877, the President wrote: "I believe her case to be a pitiable one, and wish I could join in her relief. But unfortunately official duty cannot always be well done when directed solely by sympathy and charity." In declining to sign a bill granting a pension to Mary Anderson, whose husband was killed by the cars in 1882, the President wrote:

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"His wife and children present pitiable objects for sympathy, but I am unable to see how they have any claim to a pension." In the case of Mrs. Maria Hunter, whose application was at the time under examination in the Pension Bureau, he wrote: "I have no doubt the widow will receive ample justice through the instrumentality organized for the purpose of dispensing the nation's grateful acknowledgment of military service in its defence."

The President left no doubt whatever of the spirit which actuated him in withholding his signature from pension bills. Again and again he indicates that he foresaw the use that partisanship would make of his interpretation of his duty, but he never allowed this to influence him in any decision. In one of his messages he says:

"I have not been insensible to the suggestions which should influence every citizen, either in private station or official place, to exhibit not only a just but a generous appreciation of the services of our country's defenders. In reviewing the pension legislation presented to me, many bills have been approved upon the theory that every doubt should be resolved in favor of the proposed beneficiary. I have not, however, been able to entirely divest myself of the idea that the public money appropriated for pensions is the soldiers' fund, which should be devoted to the indemnification of those who, in the defence of the Union and in the nation's service, have worthily suffered, and who, in the day of their dependence resulting from such suffering, are entitled to the benefaction of their Government. This reflection lends to the bestowal of pensions a kind of sacredness which invites the adoption of such principles and regulations as will exclude perversion, as well as insure a liberal and generous application of grateful and benevolent designs. Heedlessness and a disregard of the principle which underlies the granting of pensions are unfair to the wounded, crippled soldier who is honored in the just recognition of his Government. Such a man should never find himself side by side on the pension roll with those who have been tempted to attribute the natural ills to which humanity is heir to service in the army. Every relaxation of principle in the granting of pensions invites applications without merit, and encourages those who for gain urge honest men to become dishonest."

Lieut.-Col. Loren Burritt, receiving a pension of $72 a month, would have had this increased if the President had signed a private bill passed in his behalf. In explaining why he could not consent to this increase, the President wrote:

"No man can check, if he would, the feeling of sympathy and pity aroused by the contemplation of utter helplessness as the result of patriotic and faithful military service. But, in the midst of all this, I cannot put out of mind the soldiers in this condition who were privates in the ranks, who sustained the utmost hardships of war, but who, because they were privates, and in the humble walks of life, are not so apt to share in special favors of Congressional action. I find no reason why this beneficiary should be singled out from his class, except it be that he was a lieutenant-colonel instead of a private."

It is unnecessary to go on multiplying extracts from these messages to show the President's appreciation of the soldiers' services to the country, and his own clear interpretation of the responsibility which his high office places on him in dealing with such legislation. His indignation at times has found some expression when bill after bill has come before him granting the public money to men whose claims had been rejected in the Pension Office, whose injuries had no connection with their military service, or who, as one applicant, William Boone, under his own signature, admitted, "never thought of trying getting a pension until my old comrades urged me to do so." But no honest veteran can take to himself a single word of the President's censure, and every friend of the soldier ought to thank the President for his zeal in keeping off of the pension list men who are so unworthy to be associated with those who receive testimonials of the nation's gratitude.

ARE THEY DISSATISFIED?

For years the Republicans have professed that the chief object of their party was to re-establish the Union upon a secure basis. They have claimed that their great desire was to have the South loyally accept the new order of things brought about by the war and by the constitutional amendments. They have insisted that their earnest hope was to see the time when the two races should live in concord, and when there should no longer be any "negro question." These were most patriotic professions. Indeed, a political party could not propose ends more desirable or more commendable.

For two years past there have been most convincing proofs that these ends were largely achieved. A national administration which owed its election in great measure to the support of "the States lately in rebellion," has been in power, and everybody sees that "the fruits of the war" are as safe as when the Republicans were in power. Rebel pensions have not been suggested, rebel claims have not been presented, the payment of the rebel debt has not been asked; and no sensible man in the land longer believes that anything of this sort is expected by anybody in the South outside of a lunatic asylum. The good-natured indifference with which the South received the suggestion of returning in bulk the rebel flags, has shown that the flag of the nation is the banner to which the South as well as the North is now devoted. The recent notable reunion of Confederate and Union soldiers at Gettysburg, and minor occasions of the same sort, have shown that the soldiers of the "lost cause" are as loyal to the Union as those of the cause which won.

Experience has proved that the negroes are not dependent upon any political party, and that they are as well off when there is a Democratic President as while Republicans sat in the White House. No attempt has been made to put them back into slavery, or to restrict any of the rights which they had previously enjoyed. Schools for colored children have not been closed, and the Southern whites have not attempted to put obstacles in the way of negro education. On the contrary, it is the testimony of such a life-long Republican, Union soldier, and negro teacher as Gen. Armstrong of the Hampton (Va.) Institute, after a recent tour through the South, that the relations of the two races have never before been so harmonious; that the education of the blacks was never before progressing so rapidly; and that the negroes as a race never before stood upon so secure a footing in the South, and never before came so near to enjoying their rights.

In short, there never has been a time since the formation of the Republican party when there were such unmistakable proofs as now that the Union was restored, and that the "negro question" was in process of successful solution; or, in other words, that the future of the republic, so far as the South is concerned, is assured. One would expect to find Republican newspapers filled with these proofs of the restoration of the Union and of the growth of harmonious relations under liberty between former masters and former slaves, and Republican orators waxing eloquent over the development of love of country and of respect for the rights of man. Certainly, no party ever had greater reason for rejoicing over the accomplishment of the ends which it had professed to seek.

Extraordinary as it may seem, however, the fact is that Republican newspapers and orators make rare and scant allusion to any of these glorious achievements. Patriotic speeches by Southerners are referred to but seldom and grudgingly; the encouraging reports as to the progress of the negroes during the last two years made by such men as Gen. Armstrong are not published. In a word, anything which shows that the drift of things in the South is in the direction desired by every patriot, is either suppressed or depreciated. And that no doubt may be left as to the animus of this course, the greatest prominence is given by the same newspapers and orators to every petty incident which makes against the overwhelming drift, like the impatient outburst of some antediluvian Bourbon against the new order, or the occasional outrage upon some negro.

The question inevitably arises, Are the Republicans dissatisfied with their success? And this suggests the other question, Do the Republicans propose to enter the campaign of 1888 upon a "view-with-alarm" plank of a new sort—alarm because the Union is really saved and the negro can take care of himself?

THE FAMILY OF MONTAIGNE.

I.—HIS MOTHER.

A VOLUME published at Bordeaux twelve years ago, entitled 'Michel de Montaigne, son origine, sa famille,' contains, in the dry form of legal documents and genealogical tables, with annotations and comments thereon, much that is of interest. The readers of Montaigne, who become in so peculiar a sense his friends, his intimate friends, cannot fail to recognize from first acquaintance with him the strength of his affection for his father; and some few indications of companionship with his brothers introduce us to them. But of his mother he tells us nothing, save that his father obliged her to talk Latin with him in his childhood, which she "avoit aprins pour iargonner avec moi."

In this invaluable volume of documents, brought together by M. Théophile Malvezin, we learn not much but something about her. She was Antoinette de Louppes; and M. Malvezin brings a mass of evidence to prove, and makes it much more than probable, that she belonged to a Spanish family, thé Lopès, and that they were Spanish Jews. Great numbers of this people took refuge at Bordeaux, Toulouse, and Bayonne, when driven out from Spain and Portugal in the fifteenth century, under circumstances which Montaigne narrates with exactness in the essay entitled "Que le goust des biens et des maulx

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despend, en bonne partie, de l'opinion que nous en avons." These refugees, even after their flight, were obliged to become Catholics, and they were known as "new Christians." Among the "new Christians" who settled at Bordeaux were many men of considerable ability, who, after the wonted manner of Jews, soon gained high places in their adopted city, and from whom sprang important and respected families. There were men of learning—doctors of letters, who became regents of the College of Guienne (where Montaigne's earliest public education was conducted); doctors of law, and doctors of medicine. Among these last was a certain Bertrand Lopès (or Loppes, Louppes, or De Louppes; the name is spelled indifferently in all these ways), while his brother Antonio Lopès was a great trader in wines and dyes (as were likewise Montaigne's paternal grandfather and great-grandfather, Grimon and Ramon Eyquem). Another brother, Pierre Lopès, was a merchant of the same kind at Toulouse, and M. Malvezin believes Antoinette de Louppes to have been his daughter. One little link in his chain of evidence is Montaigne's phrase when, speaking of his father, he says, "He married . . . on his way back from Italy." Toulouse is precisely on the way back from Italy; and the Eyquems and the Lopès, these two families of great merchants, it is every way probable already had business relations together. It is at least certain that "Mademoiselle de Montaigne" (her style in those days) was of Spanish descent. And this fact throws a pretty little light on Montaigne's statement that his father was familiar with the Italian and Spanish languages (II, 12), adding elsewhere (II, 2), "He talked little and well, and mingled in his speech illustrations from modern books, especially Spanish." It will be remembered that it was he who put into his son's hands the work of the Spanish author Raimond de Sebonde, the study of which was not without influence on Montaigne's thoughts and reputation. Suppose it had been the work of the Spanish author Cervantes: how different would Montaigne have been? *Que sçais-je?* But though Cervantes was then in the world, 'Don Quixote' was not.

M. Grün, writing before the discoveries of M. Malvezin, is strongly disposed to believe that Montaigne must have received the latter part of his education at the University of Toulouse, where the men who were his friends in after life, Estienne Pasquier, Pibrac, Paul de Foix, Adrien Turnèbe, and others are known to have been; but he acknowledges an objection to lie in the distance of Toulouse from Bordeaux. If Toulouse was the home of the family of Montaigne's mother, this objection vanishes; and the "riche vieillard pulmonique" at whose house in Toulouse Montaigne speaks (I, 20) of meeting Simon Thomas, "un grand médecin de son temps," was very likely his grandfather.

There is no record of Mme. de Montaigne during the life of her husband; but an interesting document exists, dated ten weeks after his death, which is "a transaction" between "damoiselle Anthoinette de Louppes . . . et M. Me. Michel de Montaigne, escuyer, conseiller du Roy en sa Court de Parlement de Bourdeaux, mère et fils." It is an agreement based on the will of the deceased husband and father; and, translated with some concisions, it is as follows. After arranging for the settlement of certain moneys to be paid to the widow, it continues:

"Item, because, in the said article of the will it is ordered that the said damoiselle shall be entertained and maintained out of the property of the testator with the same authority and everything else (*tout ainsi*) that she had had during his life, it is agreed and understood between the parties that the said clause cannot cover other superintendence and mistress-ship than honorary and maternal; and that as to the entertainment and maintenance, it has been agreed that whilst the said damoiselle and sieur de Montaigne shall agree to live together at Montaigne, the said damoiselle shall be maintained there according to the said will with all honor, respect, and filial service, together with two chamberwomen and a man-servant; and for her maintenance and small expenses the sieur de Montaigne shall pay to his above-named mother 100 *livres tournoises* a year, quarterly.

"Item, as to the habitation in the château de Montaigne bequeathed by the said article for the said damoiselle, the sieur de Montaigne wishes and intends that she should enjoy it just as it is specified, provided that the said right of habitation be not interpreted to extend beyond the persons of the said damoiselle, two chamberwomen, and a man-servant; and provided . . . that the command and mastery of the said château de Montaigne in general, and of its courts and its entries and issues remain entirely with the said sieur de Montaigne without derogating from the right of habitation that the said damoiselle has for herself [and her three servants], nor from their right (for herself and her servants) to go in and out of the château, nor from the right of the use of the wells and gardens bequeathed to her service by the said will."

In case they should not be able harmoniously to live together, it is stipulated that a lodging furnished according to her taste shall be provided for the mother, or in place of it she shall receive a hundred livres a year, besides a pension of three hundred livres yearly.

After these arrangements the "transaction" goes on to order that, conformably to the will, the demoiselles Léonor and Marie de Montaigne, the young sisters of Michel, shall be "entertained, educated, and maintained by the said sieur de Montaigne," their guardian conjointly with their mother and M. de Gaujac, their father's brother; and that if difficulties arise on this subject (*quelque doubté pour le gouvernement desdictes filles*), the parties shall be obliged to accept the arbitration of MM. le président de Belcier de Sainte-Croix and Villeneufroc, conseiller au grand conseil (the former a cousin of the deceased, the latter of the widow).

This document has a dismal accordance with some passages in the Essays, such as this (III, 3), when, speaking of his special "tower," his library, he says: "Here is my kingdom: I try to render my dominion of it entire, and to withhold this sole corner from conjugal, filial, and civil community; everywhere else I have only a verbal, seeming, confused authority." It is probable that disagreements did not arise, at least of sufficient consequence to bring about a separation, and that through all Montaigne's life his mother lived under his roof, and in her old age was one of his "famille esgarée, faisant peur à ses amis et à soy même," for whom, in the terrible days of the pestilence of 1585, he was "en tres pénible queste de retraicte." But it may be feared that, at least in the early days of their forming one household, the domestic affairs of the château de Montaigne had trying complications; and another legal document of a still more curious nature opens the door of the salon to us at a moment such as Montaigne may have had in mind when, writing of anger, and especially, one may say, of household anger, he says: "Aux grands occasions cela me paye [me satisfait] qu' elles sont si justes, que chacun s'attend d'en voir naître une raissonable colère: je me glorifie à tromper leur attente."

This paper is dated May 23, 1569, which is nine months and more after the one just cited. In this interval the youngest of Montaigne's brothers, Arnaud, had died, unmarried, twenty-eight years old. He was "le capitaine Saint-Martin," whose death, from being struck by the ball in playing tennis, Montaigne relates (I, 19). Now the notary speaks:

"To-day, the 23d day of May, 1569, in the château de Montaigne in Périgord, has appeared the noble Michel de Montaigne, lord of the said place, and speaking to damoiselle Anthoinette de Louppes, his mother, has declared to her that he has found in the coffers of his wife a gold chain which the late noble Arnaud de Montaigne, lord of Saint-Martin, his brother, had left there; the which the said damoiselle de Louppes has said to be due and to belong to her, and requires to be given to her. And this gold chain the said lord of Montaigne, in the presence and with the consent of the noble Thomas de Montaigne, lord of Beauregard, and the noble Pierre de Montaigne, lord of La Brousse, brothers of the late Saint-Martin, has now left and delivered to the said de Louppes, and she has received it."

The Jewess evidently cried to better purpose than poor *Shylock*:

"Justice! the law! my ducats! O my daughter!"

The last record of her is in December, 1600, when she sanctioned by her presence and consent the marriage of her great-granddaughter (the daughter of Montaigne's only child, Leonor). She must have died soon after, a nonogenarian at least, since she was married in 1528. In her will she boasted that "it is well known that I labored for the space of forty years in the house of Montaigne with my husband, in such manner that by my labor, care, and management the said house has been greatly increased in value, improved and augmented; which, with its dependencies, the late Michel de Montaigne, my eldest son, has enjoyed peaceably by my leave and permission, and since his death Leonor de Montaigne . . . holds and possesses almost all the property left by the late sieur de Montaigne, my husband, being very rich and opulent." If this last phrase be not a prejudiced view, due to a desire to leave her own property to her two surviving sons, and but little to this granddaughter, it is of interest in confirming one's impression of Montaigne's wealth.

THE UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN AND ITS RECENT JUBILEE.

ANN ARBOR, July 4, 1887.

THE University of Michigan has just been commemorating the completion of the first half century of its legal existence. Festival ceremonies of one kind or another continued through four or five days, the most memorable feature of all being the fine Commemoration Address by President Angell. I will not here enter into the details of the celebration, which have been duly chronicled by the newspapers; but, quite apart from such details, the anniversary is one which invites reflection and possesses more than a local interest.

By general consent the University of Michigan is regarded as the most prominent representative of that class of higher educational establishments which derive a large part of their revenue from popular taxation. The ideas upon which it has been built up are by no means universally accepted in this country, and hostile criticism of them has never been entirely silent even here in Michigan. A considerable part of the population are disposed to look upon their University, with its expensive equipment, as a costly luxury, of doubtful benefit to the people as a whole. This opposition is not always aggressive; it takes various forms, exhibits different degrees of energy, and comes from people of all grades of intelligence. There is, for example, the well-informed doctrinaire who has views of his own as to what are the "legitimate" functions of the State. Then there is the business man, whose paramount solicitude is to get richer, and who naturally takes a commercial view of things. With this type of man the instinct of social benevolence commonly exhausts itself in giving to the poor and the unfortunate, in contributing to the support of a church and of church schools, and in promoting all sorts of enterprises that seem to smack of material progress. Such men are in many ways the bone and sinew of the land, but it is the exception ra-

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ther than the rule to find them really caring anything at heart for the large ideal interests which it is the especial business of a university to conserve. Then, again, we have to reckon with a class of voters who are habitually hostile to whatever makes for the refinement of the natural man; this class has no sympathy with gentlemen, nor with anything that gentlemen appear to believe in or are prominently associated with. And, finally, there is the skinflint *sans phrase*.

How strong numerically the opposition to the University would prove to be if there were any opportunity of testing its strength with the people of Michigan, no one knows. What is known is that the University is part of the historic life of the State; that it has been from the beginning strongly intrenched in the affections of the most intelligent part of the population; and that during the last two decades it has received from the State treasury about a million of dollars. Confirmed by this liberality in an ever-increasing confidence that the good-will of the State is behind it, and anxious to keep pace with the recent progress of university ideals, the Michigan institution has rapidly extended its facilities for work until its annual expenditure considerably exceeds the income from its regular sources of revenue. Were the help of the State to be withdrawn, it would not indeed perish utterly, but it would suffer a collapse which would effectually destroy not only a large part of its present usefulness, but also whatever of prestige it may have acquired among institutions of learning. There is probably no reason to fear any such withdrawal—in fact, the indications point strongly the other way; and yet the possibility of such a contingency is never suffered to remain long out of sight of the friends of the University, and has just been thrust prominently upon their attention by circumstances which have forced this question of the relations of the University to the people into the forefront of popular discussion all over the State.

The circumstances alluded to were as follows: The University was sorely in need of additional facilities for physical and biological investigation, and the Regents, upon examining the situation, incorporated in their usual memorial to the Legislature a request for $75,000, to be used in erecting laboratories for the aforementioned purposes. Upon invitation, both houses of the Legislature visited the University en masse, to satisfy themselves of the reasonableness of the request, and in due time they passed by easy majorities substantially such a bill as had been asked for. This bill the Governor saw fit to veto—an act which was a surprise to everybody, and at once precipitated the popular agitation above alluded to. The present Governor of the State is a *de ore* farmer (*de facto* he is a banker), and would doubtless be called by any fair critic an eminently respectable product of the Republican Machine in this State at a time when it was deemed expedient to do something for the Granger vote. But the Governor's argument in his veto message was so flimsy, and betrayed such naïve ignorance of the University's affairs, as to lead to the conviction in the minds of many people that the Executive was playing a deeper game than that of the economical farmer, and was seeking a pretext behind which to hide a general opposition to any and all further appropriations by the State for University purposes. It was thought that he had concluded, as a political move, to test the strength of this idea among the toiling taxpayers whom he is conventionally supposed to represent. Such an appeal would undoubtedly meet with strong support, and, however it might eventuate, would have the calamitous result of dragging the University into State politics. But in due time the Governor took pains to make known that no such thought was in his mind—he was the stanch friend of the University, proud of its record, and devoted to its interests; but he thought that laboratory item too high. This was, I am confident, an entirely honest expression of feeling, although there are not wanting people who see in it a politician's method of dropping, in consequence of new light, an article that had proved to have a somewhat higher temperature than he supposed when he picked it up.

The remainder of the episode must have, for the outside world at least, a rather comical aspect. The Senate promptly passed the bill over the veto by an almost unanimous vote; but, the House refusing to follow this example, a new bill was introduced like the former, save that it reduced the laboratory item by more than one-half. This bill has since become a law. The amount granted is entirely and ridiculously inadequate to the purposes contemplated. The comedy of the situation lies in the fact that no one really sympathizes with the Governor's position. There are many people in the State who would be glad to see all State aid to the University either suddenly or gradually withdrawn; but there are few indeed who will not say that if the policy of appropriations is to be kept up at all, then the State should not be niggardly in giving to the University what it actually needs to do its work—so long, at any rate, as the sum involved represents an amount absolutely inappreciable to the individual taxpayer. The absurdity of having the scientific necessities of a great university gauged by a farmer-Governor who knows nothing at all about such matters, is all the more apparent when we consider that the Regents of the University are in this State elected by popular vote, that they have always administered their charge with the strictest economy, and that their chief function is to stand between the greed of professors and the purse-strings of the people.

In view of the occurrences just narrated, it is not surprising that the retrospective addresses of the recent jubilee should have been largely occupied with the great question of the University and the people. It was as if the establishment felt called upon to justify its existence on the score of its past services to the State as a whole. To this problem the various speakers addressed themselves, both in formal discourses and in post-prandial oratory, with much ardor and with evident confidence in the strength of their case. And as one looks back, the case does indeed appear to be a tolerably strong one. The briefest possible sketch of the record made may be appropriate in this place. The history of the University really begins with a period of splendid but quixotic planning which was to have given us a German university (minus the theological faculty), and a number of gymnasia organically connected with it, and scattered here and there through the State. These "branches," as they were called, were to depend for support upon the university fund, the proceeds of the Congressional land grant of 1826. This fund was in 1837 confidently estimated at a million of dollars, but the relief legislation in the interest of settlers which followed the financial stress of that period, ultimately reduced this sum to less than half the amount named; and even this afforded for a time a precarious income. So it came about that the educational concern which finally opened its doors for students in 1841, began its career under grave financial embarrassments, and bore but a faint resemblance to the fine plan that had originally been conceived. Instead of a university there had been started a feeble school of Latin, Greek, and mathematics. The branches soon died of inanition, and the central establishment, at Ann Arbor, went on its way as well as it could in the manner of the Eastern colleges.

From this point on, the history presents two clearly marked epochs. The first, beginning with the accession of Dr. Henry P. Tappan to the presidency in 1852, was a period in which the infant college grew as far toward the stature of a university as the limits of its income would permit. President Tappan, a man whose memory is highly venerated by those who knew him, was thoroughly in sympathy with the German theory of a university, and, though himself a clergyman, was essentially one of the modern type of secular college presidents. He at once set about loosening the grip of the Puritan tradition, took great pains to expound to students and to the public his idea of what a university should be, and, in the matter of appointments, did what he could to substitute scholarly for religious tests. A school of medicine had been established in 1850, and schools of engineering and of law followed a few years later. A so-called scientific course was started to run parallel with the classical curriculum and lead to the degree of B.S. And thus the University of Michigan was committed thirty years ago to its peculiar solution of the modern burning question of the "college fetish." It confers (unfortunately, I think) four different bachelor's degrees, but no one receives, or is likely to receive, the traditional degree of B.A. without the traditional modicum of Greek.

In due time it was seen that, if the sketch of the founders and of President Tappan were ever to be filled in, the University must have help from the State. Application was first made to the Legislature in 1867, and was successful; from that time the institution entered upon a new period of still more rapid expansion, rendered possible by continual State appropriations. In this recent development, the guiding policy has been to bring the University into the closest possible relations with the people. It was along the line of this policy that, in 1870, women were admitted to all departments, and that at the same time the University began to receive into its Freshman class, without examination, the graduates of approved high schools. This last step has proved of great influence for good throughout the State's entire system of public instruction. A strong effort has continually been made in the recent past to foster the sentiment that the University exists by the people and for the people, and has no other ambition than to make itself, in the long run and in the highest sense, useful to the people. During the collegiate year just closed the University faculties numbered in the aggregate eighty-six teachers of various grades, and the total enrolment of students was 1,572. Of this last number about three-fifths were the children of farmers, and more than three-quarters the children of men who work with their hands. The graduates at the recent commencement numbered 409.

I said above that the jubilee orators were able to make out a strong case in behalf of the University of Michigan. This, of course, could not be done on the theory that a university is in its essence a polishing institution existing for the sole benefit of those who are polished. If what is called a "liberal education" is of the nature of a luxury which, like a yacht or a fast horse, means nothing beyond the personal gratification of the possessor, then this luxury should certainly be paid for by those who want it. But if, on the other hand, everywhere in life, accurate knowledge, trained faculties, and the spirit of research are of benefit not only to their possessor but to the community in which he lives—if, in short, these things are of value as agencies of social amelioration—then the commonwealth may very properly take steps to enlist these agencies in its own service. Mr. Lowell, speaking where there was no danger that the word would come back to plague him, might well define a university as a "place where nothing useful is taught." We understand him, and do not criticise; but we

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should shrink from adopting his phraseology. *Our* cue is to prove, if we can, that what is to be learned at a university *is* useful. This highest ground is also the safest and strongest ground upon which a State university can be defended. The common argument, that a people can well afford to tax themselves in order to realize *la carrière ouverte aux talents*, is entirely sound; but its soundness requires that the talent to which a career has been opened by the people should be, in some proper sense, devoted to the people's service. Is this condition actually fulfilled? Do the graduates of our highest institutions of learning carry about with them, as a rule, any peculiar sense of consecration? Are they possessed, more than other men, by a feeling of social obligation—by a sentiment of *noblesse oblige*? Do not these very questions sound like chimerical nonsense? As one counts over the list of his friends who are college graduates, does it not appear that, for nine out of every ten, their so-called "education" was nothing but a conventional episode of early life, without ulterior bearings of any kind? Perhaps so; but it is well to remember that, in a matter of this kind, appearances are particularly liable to be deceptive. In any event, there is the tenth man, and it is the tenth man that counts. *He* is our chief reliance in proving the usefulness of colleges and universities. And if this proportion of one in ten be painfully small, then it is evidently a pressing business of the colleges and universities to consider how it may be increased.

C. T.

WOMEN AT CAMBRIDGE AND OXFORD.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., July 6, 1887.

NEWNHAM and Girton Colleges, Cambridge, and Lady Margaret and Somerville Halls, Oxford, have long been familiar names to American readers; yet, although a detailed description of them is unnecessary, a few notes of impressions obtained in a recent visit to them may not prove a repetition of well-known facts.

I remark, first, that the women students have felt the influence of the movement among the men which is embodied in Toynbee Hall, London. Toynbee Hall is the well-known residence of a group of Cambridge and Oxford graduates, situated in one of the worst centres of poverty in the East End. Its residents strive to arouse and help their neighbors in quite the same way as any high-minded man may seek to influence the little community about him. They take their part in the political, educational, and social life of their centre, and make their hall life a silent object lesson in refinement and culture. Their avowed object is to "provide education and the means of recreation and enjoyment for the people of the poorer districts of London," and they measure their success by the degree in which they attain "the creation of a higher tone of feeling and thinking, the growth of sympathy, courteous and mutual intelligence, and the destruction of social and conventional barriers between the so-called classes." Toynbee Hall, as a community of men, is naturally much restricted in its influence upon the women of its neighborhood. This limitation impressed me deeply in my visit to the Hall. It was most interesting, therefore, to find, on visiting Cambridge, that others felt this lack, and that brave hearts and trained heads were planning to extend the work to women. Preliminary meetings have already been held towards forming a "Women's University Association for work in the poorer districts of London," after the Toynbee model. At the time of my visit there were such meetings at these four colleges for the purpose of ratifying the constitution which a joint committee had drawn up. The object of the association, as stated, is "to promote the welfare of the people of the poorer districts of London, and more especially the women and children, by devising and advancing schemes which tend to elevate them, and by giving them additional opportunities for education and recreation; to rent and maintain a house for the residence of educated women who will engage in carrying out this work; to receive subscriptions and donations from all persons desiring to promote these objects, and to do such other things as are incidental or conducive to the attainment of these objects."

Only University members constitute the electoral body, but subscribers may become associate members. The Executive Committee is drawn from the past and present members of the four Oxford and Cambridge colleges, with liberty to add representatives from London University if desired. The details of the plan are still undecided. Whether or not a salary shall be paid the "Head Worker," is a burning question. The opinion prevails that it is more consistent with the spirit of the scheme that the workers should, so far as possible, be self-supporting, and that any form of almsgiving should be avoided. Southwark is thought to be a desirable centre, and good work is expected to be done there among that class in the board schools known as "pupil-teachers." The experiment will be first tried on a small scale. It is hoped that, if a sufficient number possessing an income of their own, either through inheritance or by their daily employment, do not at first present themselves, women may come, in the frequent vacations of the schools and colleges, to share temporarily in the work.

One of the undertakings of our American Society of Collegiate Alumnæ—the collection of the health statistics of women college graduates—has lately been copied in England by a Cambridge lady, a former officer of Newnham College, I believe, and who has the coöperation of the heads of the Cambridge and Oxford colleges for women. The questions are taken directly from the American circular, and only slightly modified to suit the differing conditions of English life. It is to be regretted, however, that some of the questions thought by the American investigators to be of vital importance were omitted. An ingenious scheme was devised for obtaining at the same time similar statistics of non-college graduates as a ground for comparison. A like set of questions is sent to each graduate, with the request to fill out for that sister nearest in age who did not go to college, or, failing a sister, that cousin who fulfils the same conditions. The answers are coming in very rapidly, and it is hoped that they will prove a satisfactory reply to the strictures on the higher education of women made by Dr. Withers Moore, the President of the British Medical Association, in a recent address before that learned body.

The intellectual life of the women's colleges is so bound up with the complicated machinery of the university system, and their facilities and opportunities are based so largely upon the methods and the equipment of the men's colleges, that a comparison with American colleges for women is most difficult. The attention is consequently drawn the more strongly to what may be called, by way of contrast, the physical conditions. The "cottage" system of dormitories prevails. Newnham is erecting the third of these small halls, Somerville her second, while Lady Margaret has already established a second of simple appointments for those students who wish to economize. Girton alone is built on the large scale of Vassar and Wellesley. I was taken most literally in my expressed desire to "see" the colleges. Probably the prettiest rooms were exhibited—those belonging to students whose residence had been long enough for the accumulation of attractive accessories. There were no apparent evidences of extravagant outlay, but everywhere cultivated tastes had been exercised in employing inexpensive trifles to form a refined whole. There was no trace of that vulgar extravagance of large spenders which one of her professors has recently acknowledged to have a home at Harvard.

A visitor interested in the subject must notice how slight is the attention paid in all these colleges to physical education. Somerville Hall possesses no gymnasium whatever. Lady Margaret Hall has a small one, inadequately furnished, and unprovided with an instructor. Girton, also, possesses only a small one, reported "unused"; while Newnham's, too, is diminutive and rarely used, and its benefits are restricted to those who care enough for its advantages to pay a fee. A paid instructor visits it once a week. None of the colleges have a resident physician, and physiology is not down in the list of subjects in which instruction is provided at the Oxford halls, while in Cambridge it apparently finds a place only in the studies of the few who prepare for those examinations in natural science in which this subject is obligatory. Tennis, an English game called "Fives," walking and riding, are the popular forms of exercise. These, of course, have their advantages, but it must be admitted that such exercise is necessarily irregular and inadequate.

Notwithstanding the popular impression that the expense of living in England is less than in America, the charges for tuition and board during the academic year of twenty-four weeks have a minimum of about $375, and special charges are not insignificant additions to the student's expenses. There are, however, a large number of scholarships open to English students. Of the 122 students at present enrolled at Newnham, twenty-eight enjoy scholarships, and a similar proportion holds in the other colleges.

The number of students is increasing, and all but Lady Margaret are enlarging their accommodations in order to meet the demand for rooms. In both Cambridge and Oxford, provision is made in the scheme of instruction for mature students who prefer not to put themselves under the discipline of life in one of the halls. In Oxford no difference at all is made between "out-students" and "hall-students," but one of the authorities of the Oxford Society for the University Education of Women wrote me that she "should always recommend a hall for young students, because of the great advantages in guidance by hall teachers and in the society of other students. There are always a small number of out-students, but it is difficult for a girl, not at a hall, to become much acquainted with those in the halls, and she may feel isolated." Residence is obligatory at Girton, and strongly recommended at Newnham.

FRANCE AND RUSSIA.

PARIS, July 1, 1887.

IT would be difficult to deny that a sort of irresistible force draws together the two Powers of Europe which are, or are supposed to be, the most hostile to Germany—I mean France and Russia. For a very long time this tendency was not well marked. I do not attach much importance to the so-called revelations lately made to a Paris paper, the *Figaro*, by an ex-Ambassador to Russia, Gen. Le Flo. It would result from these revelations that a few years ago, under the Presidency of MacMahon, France was in very imminent danger of a sudden and unprovoked aggression, and that we were saved by the late Emperor Alexander II. The despatches published by Gen. Le Flo show that Alexander II. expressed at the time good wishes for France, desired its welfare, and

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saw no reason for a war. In order to prove that there was anything more than courteous expressions of good-will, it would be necessary first to prove that there was a real danger, and to show what was the exact character of it. It is very tempting to say to somebody: "I saved you"; but gratitude in such a case must be somewhat in proportion to the peril. If a man is on dry land, you cannot save him from drowning. Those who have not been brought up in the diplomatic career find it somewhat difficult to estimate the true value of declarations made to diplomats, who are easily nervous, who make no difference between the courtesy shown to themselves and the sentiments felt towards the countries they represent. They never follow the famous precept of Talleyrand, "Surtout, messieurs, pas de zèle."

The real *rapprochement* between France and Russia only began after the Treaty of Berlin. At that time a great irritation was felt against England, and by degrees also against Germany. Lately many despatches have been published in Berlin tending to prove that Germany acted the part of a good friend, and did not try to deprive Russia of the advantages to which she thought herself entitled; but we have an old proverb: "Qui s'excuse, s'accuse." Public opinion has probably not been converted by these publications. The Russians, as a nation, admit a certain sort of natural antagonism on the part of Austria in the East, and are almost ready to forgive her rather than Germany for the action of the Congress of Berlin. Ever since that period, the influence of Katkoff has been increasing, and his doctrine is hostility to Germany in every form—economical, social, political.

This deep-rooted hostility is well shown in all Russian literature; and, by a singular accident, it is only in recent years that the French public has become acquainted with this literature. It has to many minds been a sort of revelation. The seed was sown by Ivan Turgeneff, who lived long in France and who was personally much admired and liked; but since his time we have become acquainted with other Russian writers, and, without entering now into an elaborate criticism of Russian literature, I will only say that it has impressed all minds with a peculiar sort of admiration. Russia has been revealed to us as an enormous, mysterious, extraordinary Power, full of virtualities, of aspirations, of singular ambitions; and a curious sympathy has been felt for a nation which, in its infancy, could give such proofs of intellectual and moral fertility. It will, perhaps, seem to some that the influence of literature has not much bearing on politics—that the great masses of the people are not led by books, novels, and the drama. This seems to me a narrow view. A nation, considered in itself as a unit, has a sort of soul and a mind; and this mind is led by general ideas, formed by some mystical process, in which literature has a very important part. Such men as Shakspere, as Goethe, as Molière are worth an army; they give incalculable force and prestige to the country which they have honored and magnified by their genius.

The great masses of the French people have not read Turgeneff or Tolstoi. But the politics of the nation, in spite of the arithmetical rule of universal suffrage, is always influenced by the press, by the cultured classes, by all those who read and write; and it cannot be denied that Russia, her statesmen, her imperial family, her newspapers, her books, have taken a greater place in the preoccupations of the French people than they did before. There is a certain sort of what we call *engouement* in this feeling: it is not very much reasoned out. Ignorance has as much part in it as knowledge: "major a longinquo reverentia." My friend M. Klaczko, who wrote so long in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, and who lives now in Vienna, had some curious expressions when he spoke of Russia. He said once that when Russia wished to please another country, she used what he called "la politique des cantharides," by which he meant that she sent some grand-duke or grand-duchess, or prince or princess, who made it his or her business to be very charming, very seductive, and very inviting. The Russians who belong to good society speak French marvellously well, and they have faculties which enable them to be immediately at home in French society. We have all seen and known those "cantharides," who profess an immense admiration for France, French manners, French fashions; who speak in Paris as if they were in exile in any other place. We know their houses; their faces are familiar; they are all semi-accredited ambassadors of the great Power of the north.

There was no occasion for France to look for any allies after the war of 1870; we all felt that the work of reorganization of the country would take years, that the work was immense, and that, till it was accomplished, isolation was the only natural, the only proud policy. At the time when the colonial policy was inaugurated by the expeditions to Tunis and Tonkin, the necessity of foreign support began to be felt. Italy and England showed great dissatisfaction and some ill-humor at the indirect annexation of Tunis. The ambition of France was denounced. Madagascar became a bone of contention with England, and the relations with our neighbors across the Channel became even more difficult when the *condominium* in Egypt came to an end. The French Chambers refused to vote funds for an English expedition, and England was allowed to go alone to Alexandria, to Cairo, and afterwards to Khartum. The old school of French diplomats was very discontented. Among all their traditions was the necessity of preserving French influence in the valley of the Nile. It would perhaps be hard to give an exact definition of the character of this influence; but as it is thought to have suffered from the solitary action of England, French diplomacy has been occupied in trying to counteract that action. At the present moment, France is opposing in Constantinople, by all the means in her power, the ratification of an Anglo-Turkish Convention, whose object is to regulate the further action of England in the valley of the Nile, to fix a limit for the existing occupation, and to determine under what conditions a new occupation may take place hereafter. France is not alone in her opposition—she has the support of Russia; and thus we see for the first time the delineation of a new European policy, which shows on one side the constellation France, Russia, and on the other, England, Italy, and, at a little distance, Germany and Austria.

The gravity of this division is apparent. Even if this affair of the Anglo-Turkish Convention is arranged by some compromise, the political aspirations, hopes, and fears which have brought together on this occasion Republican France and autocratic Russia cannot be neglected. This natural attraction was first clearly shown at the time of the downfall of Prince Alexander in Bulgaria. You may remember that much enthusiasm was felt for this Prince at the time of his victories over the Servians, much pity and indignation when he became the victim of a military conspiracy, and when Russia signified that she would no longer tolerate his presence in Bulgaria. After these extraordinary events, Bulgarian delegates made the tour of Europe and tried to find some support and sympathy. The reception given to them by the French Minister of Foreign Affairs was informal but very significant. He did not hold out any hope to the partisans of Prince Alexander; his language was correct and cold, and it was felt at once that it was inspired by a desire to give satisfaction to Russia. This was the first evident mark of a wish to bring France and Russia nearer together; and it was so well understood that Prince Bismarck hastened to throw cold water on the Bulgarians, and to put a stop to the anti-Russian campaign which the German papers had begun after the kidnapping of Prince Alexander.

Since that time, France and Germany have gone through a severe crisis, which at one moment seemed to be the preparation for a great war. The danger is averted. The minister who personified the war feeling in France has been obliged to leave the Cabinet, and he has just now been sent to the provinces in command of a corps d'armée; but it must be remembered that during the noisy campaign of the radical press in favor of an active policy, the name of Russia was constantly pronounced. Such men as Rochefort daily represented France as having an ally all ready to take the field with her. When I read his articles I remembered one which he has probably forgotten: after the assassination of Alexander II., he dared to praise the murderers, and to hold them up as examples to the world. Now he uses a different language, and the Russian Emperor is represented as the natural ally of French radicalism. For, it must be said very distinctly, the war party has, during the last few months, consisted exclusively of the radical and communistic party. The men who made the Commune of 1870 want a war, because they hope that a war will make them at once masters of the French capital. Their political horizon is not large, and their ambitions are very selfish. It is the old story, told by Corneille, when he speaks in "Cinna" of the men who

"Si tout n'est renversé, ne sauraient subsister."

In fact, what may be called the war party has much weakened itself by consenting to be tied to radicalism, as radicalism or communism has no real hold on the French people, and can never hope to obtain a majority in the Chambers.

Correspondence.

THE REBEL FLAGS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The flurry over the flags arises, in part at least, I think, from confusion of ideas respecting the character of the war in which they were captured. The mistake of regarding it as a "war between the States," by Southern men who were misled by their erroneous views of States' rights into the rebellion, is a more rational and even a more pardonable one than that of treating it, as many Northern men seem inclined to do, as a "war between fellow-citizens."

It was not a war between the States, nor a war between fellow-citizens of the United States. It was a war between the United States and its enemies. Its character has been correctly described in the laws and other official acts of the Government, as, for example, in sec. 218 of the Revised Statutes, which requires the Secretary of War to cause to be transmitted to him "all flags, colors, and standards captured from the enemies of the United States." How far the annual reunions of soldiers or armies or the Grand Army of the Republic, on the one side, or camps of Confederate veterans, on the other, are responsible for the prevalence of the false conception of the war as a deadly conflict in which what you or I may have done, or this or that State may have done, is forced into prominence over the accomplishments of the Government and its organized enemies—is a question that should receive at least a moment's consideration. For a moment's reflection will show that, except as identified with the national Government in a self-oblivious devotion, on the one hand, or as

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absorbed in the idea of rebellion and responsibility to an organized belligerent, on the other, the men who took part in the war had no more sanction for their deeds of valor or blood than the parties to any vendetta. During the short time I was enlisted in the service of the Government I have no recollection that I had a hostile feeling personally to the men arrayed against me – they were not my personal enemies; and the exchange of coffee and tobacco was carried on occasionally, as opportunity offered, with as much good-will as the men who engaged in such acts of personal comity between the lines now meet to drink and smoke together. The reflecting soldiers on both sides knew and felt, at all moments when reflection was possible, that only as elevated above all individual considerations in their identification with the belligerent Governments which they represented, was it right or duty for them to slay each other.

The flags on either side represented the respon sible parties in the war; the stars and stripes standing for the national Government, the stars and bars for organized rebellion against it. With the rebellion defeated, and national supremacy established, I am unable to see on what proper conception of the war the rebel flags can be returned to any person or organization in the Southern States. They cannot properly be returned to the Southern State governments, for they have no significance except as the representatives of an organization and a cause which we now felicitate each other exist no more in the South than in the North. As they were never personal emblems, there is no propriety in returning them to the persons who bore them. In short, there is no propriety that I can see in doing anything with them, except to let them remain in the custody of the War Department. They have never been flaunted in public, and Northern soldiers even do not look upon them as trophies so much as signs of a restored Union. As such they cannot be offensive to any loyal citizen of the United States. S. B. PETTENGILL.

PORTLAND, ORE.

NEED WE HAVE A PANIC?

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Pessimistic financiers are predicting a panicky wave as being likely, in the near future, to follow the failure of the present attempts of real-estate speculators to "corner" the possible building sites in hundreds of large and small cities and towns throughout our land. Is it enough for the financial doctor to simply predict calamity, without at least suggesting a remedial measure that might mitigate, if not avert, the danger now so generally anticipated? Need bubbles float round without pricking, while so many interests may be affected injuriously if their gas is not let out?

With the permission of the *Nation*, three suggestions are offered for consideration by those who desire to see the present speculative real-estate fever checked without dangerous results:

(1.) Try and change the present nomenclature of the subject, and instead of writing or speaking of "dealing in real estate," say of those whose operations are confined to city and town-lot purchases or sales, "dealing in building-sites." By correctly and promptly naming the true character of this branch of business, the imagination would not be left to play any fantastic tricks with the judgment.

(2.) Discourage fairly and squarely the buying upon slim margins of town lots by those who do not need them to occupy and use for actual building purposes. The classes whose earnings and savings are now being put up as "margins" for town lots in many towns, are the people who ought to be wisely counselled against taking so many chances, not only of losing the cash paid down for first payments, but also of having judgments entered up against them for unpaid balances of purchase money, if such material shrinkages should occur in the value of their lots as would oblige the vendor to enforce his contract stipulations, in preference to exercising his reserved right to simply cancel the contract and keep the cash already paid as forfeit money. But few town-lot buyers with whom one converses fully understand that they stand upon much more dangerous ground than the ordinary grain or stock speculator, whose only loss may be the wiping out of margins already up.

(3.) Bankers doing business in these centres of speculative activity ought not to furnish their names or their money, directly or indirectly, to aid or foster the speculative spirit. Self-interest and self-preservation, in the absence of any higher philanthropic or moral motive, ought to keep them firmly set against attempts to levy taxes upon unborn children's children who may want a space 25x125 upon which to found a home.

Eastern bankers ought also to be very careful about rediscounting for banks located in feverish towns. By too great liberality and good-natured, easy-going methods of carrying "paper" for correspondents, some of the responsibility of aiding "booms" rests upon managers of staid, respectable institutions and their shareholders, who are at present perfectly ignorant of their complicity in contributing to the very dangers they decry.

By exercising discriminating care and good judgment in time, we need not involve ourselves in a great heap of financial ruins. Confusion, calamity, and crime need not come to us if we will only be patient and not be too greedy for great gain. Eagerly discounting the future, and blocking off building sites by a limited number of men for populations of 500,000 people in cities where perhaps only one-tenth of this number will be found a quarter of a century hence, ought not to be permitted to more than temporarily hinder us in our wonderful material and moral progress. JOSEPH SAMPSON.

STORM LAKE, IOWA, July 6, 1887.

HINTS FOR VILLAGE IMPROVEMENTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Is there anything in the inherent nature of atoms that forbids our small towns and villages assuming a more attractive aspect? Can you not do something to raise the ideal of the average builder? In cities where every foot of ground is costly, there may be a reason why houses should have a narrow front, with a succession of contracted rooms stretching as far back as the ground of the owner; but is it necessary to carry this defect into smaller towns? Could you not also mildly suggest that there may be too many bow windows? Such a window used to suggest an opportunity given to the inmates of the house of seeing with greater ease a garden or a lawn, or a view of fields and waters and sky; now it seems to be a swelling protuberance in the "best room" of the house, with inside shutters carefully to shut out the prying eyes of inquisitive neighbors and the sight of the delivery of parcels by the grocer's boy at the house opposite.

Then as to piazzas—are not many of them too narrow to sit in during the heat of summer, and yet wide enough to keep light from the windows during the winter? God gives light and air freely, and bad builders alone block up windows by piazzas that cannot be used, or by inside shutters, that enable the poor housekeeper to save her carpets and furniture at the expense of the health of her household. Venetian shutters temper the sunlight when needed, without excluding the air, and they give expression to a house; inside shutters do neither.

Will you not urge owners and builders to set their houses back some distance from the street whenever it is possible? It is the most effective way of beautifying a town, but it is going sadly out of use.

Can you not hold up for ridicule the bracketed projection over the front door that has taken the place of the old-fashioned stoop? I for one should be perfectly willing to have the landlords of all my fellow-citizens pay a tax on such a projection and thus abolish it.

Say a good word, please, for *wider*, not higher, windows and doors, and for putting two windows together sometimes, if there is a view to be seen.

When you have succeeded in changing the outside of the houses, will you caution the builders against putting their doors in the middle of the wall space of small rooms? A room always seems smaller if all its walls are cut up by windows or doors, and it is impossible to give such a room an occupied and comfortable look. When rooms are small, don't you think the central chandelier might be abolished, and the lights come from brackets at the side, now that lamps are so generally used for reading?

Have you any influence with architects? If you have, urge them to use long and narrow bricks in ornamenting buildings, as the old Romans did. Such bricks would cease to be expensive if a few architects would demand them of the brick-yards, and certainly the old "herring bone" was effective, and not necessarily hard to lay.

If we must have large apartment-houses in cities, give us at least central court-yards, with a bit of greenery in common, and add a loggia to the upper story, or put a flat roof over some part lower than the rest, where a hanging garden may be made. Who does not recall with pleasure such features of the palaces of Genoa and Florence? If a patron does not care for nature, will he care for art? An architect is short-sighted who does not inaugurate a reform in the large flats of our closely-built cities.

Comfort is the great requisite in all houses or apartments, and is within the means of most. Grandeur must be paid for always in money, and often by the sacrifice of comfort; and when it is aimed at but not attained, it shares the fate of all shams and becomes ridiculous.

Most sincerely, M. N. S.

NEW BEDFORD, MASS., July 5, 1887.

THE MAGIC WAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have just read with very great satisfaction the 'Preliminary Report of the Seybert Commission,' appointed to investigate the truth of modern Spiritualism (published by J. B. Lippincott Co.). My interest in the matter concerned not so much the truth of Spiritualism as it did the means by which mediums practise deception, more especially the means by which Zoellner was duped by Slade. The report is perfectly satisfactory and clear so far as it goes, and has satisfied me fully as to the Zoellner case.

Now, upon the spur of the occasion, it occurs to me that many of your readers may be in a state of mind similar to my own some years ago concerning the magic wand. That the whole story about this wonderful little instrument is untrue, few of your readers at this day will doubt; but how, in the name of common sense, it is possible that there are not a few persons left who still not only firmly believe that the magic wand shows where there is water under the ground, so that a well may be successfully made,

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but honestly practise the art of thus finding water, is a puzzling question. This question is all the more interesting because here we have a remarkable case of repeated *self-deception.* The operator with the wand himself produces, unconsciously, the effect which remains a wonder to himself and his neighbors. So far as I have been able to find out, no book gives a satisfactory explanation of the actual bending downward and even breaking of the wand which takes place. This I have not only seen, but it has happened when I was myself the operator. Now I wish to show how the operator deceives himself, and how it comes to pass that he attributes to an occult cause what he does by his own action.

Take a forked twig of hazel or willow, each tine about two and a-half feet long, and in thickness at the upper end like a common pen-holder or a little thicker. Extend your arms before you, almost horizontally, elbows quite straight, hands closed and four or six inches apart, thumbs up. Now turn both arms so that the thumbs are turned outward as far as you can get them. In this position of your hands grasp the wand firmly and hold it in a horizontal position. Hold it so firmly that the wand cannot twist or slip around in your hands. Now walk over the ground. You cannot long hold your hands in this strained position. Unconsciously your hands turn somewhat towards an easier position, you twisting the wand without knowing it, for you are holding as firmly as ever. But mark the effect. The tines of the wand as you held it at first were bent in your hands so that the figure thus formed by the wand approached a narrow loop open at your hands. This loop at the beginning lies approximately in a horizontal plane. As your hands turn back to an easier position, the loop does not remain in the horizontal plane, but becomes a figure of *double* curvature, the jointed end pointing downward. This pointing downward is taken as an indication of water. Of course the operator would thus find water wherever he might go, were it not that sometimes he begins nearer, sometimes further away from the spot where it is desired that a well be sunk, so that in some cases he is more tired than in others. Besides, the wands are not all of the same length, pliability, etc.; and last, but not least, cases of failure occur, which of course never shake the faith of the true believer.

Hazel-twigs are the most famous. You can often find a long, slender, forked branch that will work nicely.—Respectfully yours,

WERNER A. STILLE.

MARINE, ILL., July 7, 1887.

TENNESSEE AND HER CREDITORS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The record fastened upon Tennessee, in the matter of her public debt, by demagogues, timid political leaders, and a powerful lobby of bond speculators, is one that no citizen of the State can regard with pleasure. I, for one, find little to say in favor of a policy which I have always bitterly opposed as neither just nor statesmanlike. But in your comments on my letter of May 29 you make an erroneous statement and do us less than justice.

On page 490, after describing the repeal of the first funding act and the passage of the second, you add: "As if to emphasize its avarice and meanness, Tennessee actually forced its creditors to pay for the second exchange of bonds." Tennessee actually did just the contrary, and, by sec. 11 of the Funding Act of 1883, provided for paying the expense of the exchange out of the State Treasury. In this respect at least the Funding Act of 1883 was an improvement on that of 1882, as well as in paying the State debt proper (a small part of the whole, it is true) dollar for dollar.—Respectfully, &c., CAMPBELL BROWN.

[Our correspondent is right, and our mistake arose in the following way: Individuals who had been obliged to scale their bonds twice showed us the payments on their books for the second scaling, and also a certificate issued by the Fourth National Bank of Nashville, which contained the following notice: "Having special facilities for the transaction of such business, this bank offers its services to act as agent for those at a distance who may have bonds to fund. Our charges are based on those of the State, and will be ninety cents on each bond of $1,000 and forty-five cents on each bond of $100." Having, therefore, the idea in our minds that the creditors were required to pay for the second funding, we carelessly read the eleventh section of the act of 1883, which provides that payment shall be made from the State Treasury as follows: "Be it further enacted that the Comptroller, Treasurer, and Secretary of State shall receive ninety cents on each bond of $1,000 and forty-five cents on each bond of $100, to be equally divided among them and to be paid out of the Treasury of the State, etc., etc."

The payment of bank charges cannot, of course, be put upon the State, although we do not understand the meaning of that circular when the State could make no charges, and although one individual, who funded twice, stoutly maintains, without meaning to be sarcastic, that the expenses of the exchange were caused by the State, because he did not dare to send his bonds directly to the State officers for fear they would pocket the proceeds and deny they had ever received them.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

GINN & Co. announce a 'Treatise on Plane Surveying,' by Prof. Daniel Carhart of the Western University of Pennsylvania.

Lee & Shepard, Boston, will publish a compilation from Bailey's 'Festus,' prepared by Mrs. Sara Louise Saunders. The aged author is preparing an eleventh English edition of the poem for the press. It has had thirty in this country.

On the cover of 'Allan Quatermain' appears the facsimile of a letter from Mr. H. Rider Haggard, announcing that the Messrs. Harper are now the authorized American publishers of his stories. A letter from Mr. Robert Louis Stevenson, announcing that his American publishers were the Messrs. Scribner, was printed in the London *Times* a few weeks ago.

'The Fitzboodle Papers' is the general title given to the latest volume in the pocket Thackeray published by J. B. Lippincott Co. One finds in it also the 'Papers by the Fat Contributor,' 'Miss Tickletoby's Lectures on English History,' the 'Character Sketches,' and other minor pieces.

Pepys's Diary for 1664-65, Shakspere's "Julius Cæsar," and Pope's 'Essay on Man' and other poems, extend Prof. Morley's pocket "National Library" (Cassell). And even as we write comes Arthur Young's 'Tour in Ireland (1776-1779),' most impressive reading at this time by reason of its description of that condition of the Irish peasantry (with its causes) out of which has flowed a steady stream of misery, violence, and revolt. Stronger language than this famous traveller used concerning the wrongs of Ireland could not issue from Mr. Gladstone himself. The landscape, both picturesque and economic, enters largely into this narrative, and makes it altogether entertaining.

'Ticknor's White Mountains' is before us in an eighth edition, with the customary revision. If there is any better guide-book, American or foreign, we do not know of one, and we have tested it severely by experience. Its new map feature is a chart of the White Mountains, to which the Appalachian Mountain Club has furnished positions and elevations of the various summits—a coöperation which will doubtless continue hereafter to the profit of Mr. Sweetser's admirable compilation.

The late Mr. Henry B. Stanton's readable 'Random Recollections,' as first given to the public by Harper & Bros., forms a third edition of memoirs originally intended for private circulation. There has been an enlargement of at least one-third over the second edition, and the rearrangement has been very extensive and for the better. Mr. Stanton was a born politician; and as an actor or a witness in the caucuses and conventions which attended the dissolution of the Whig party and the creation of the Republican, he had first-rate opportunities for being the historian of the transition period of 1840-1860. But other qualities for this task were wanting, and "random" well expresses his mental as well as moral habitude. We cannot imagine him to have kept a diary, for that would have implied a degree of consistency and stability that did not pertain to him. These 'Recollections' lack the authority which such a record would have afforded. Mr. Stanton was a lawyer by profession, and his book abounds in legal anecdotes drawn from his experience in Massachusetts and New York in particular, and amusing enough. The present edition is furnished with a portrait which is hardly adequate.

Another private memorial, that of the late William E. Dodge, has, very properly, been offered to the public through A. D. F. Randolph & Co. It has been well edited, in view of the subject and the materials at command, and presents the many phases of Mr. Dodge's career as a business man, public servant, and philanthropist in convenient chapters, from which the thoughtful reader may derive not a little profit.

Some months ago we had occasion to speak of a vainglorious paper read by Mr. Eli Thayer of Worcester, Mass., before the Society of Antiquity in that city, in which his scheme of a Kansas Emigrant Aid Society was held up as the sole efficient instrumentality in putting an end to slavery. Mr. Thayer also indulged freely in contempt and abuse of the abolitionists, who had been carrying on a moral agitation for the same end for a quarter of a century before he appeared on the scene as the *deus ex machina.* To this feature of his paper Mr. Oliver Johnson temperately but most effectively replied in a paper read by the Rev. Samuel May before the same Society on May 10, and, like Mr. Thayer's, printed separately from the Proceedings as a pamphlet ('The Abolitionists Vindicated,' Worcester: Franklin P. Rice). To this Review are appended some remarks which it elicited from Mr. Thayer's townsmen, who treated him with much less consideration than his New York critic.

'Bar Harbor Days' (Harpers), by Mrs. Burton Harrison, is one of those books the enjoyment of writing which is apt to be greater than the pleasure of reading. It is written in an easy, lively way, and there are some pretty descriptions of Mt. Desert life and scenery, with a few fair illustrations. Its humor, however, is a little beyond the young readers for whom it is apparently intended, and the story is too slight to interest them.

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'The Blind Brother' (T. Y. Crowell & Co.), by Homer Greene, is a story of two boys who worked in a Pennsylvania coal mine in the days of the Molly Maguires. It is full of incident and graphic descriptions of life above and below ground. There is also a pathetic short story, treating of the same scenes, called 'Dick the Door-Boy.'

Mr. Kirk Munroe has made a very good use, in 'The Flamingo Feather' (Harpers), of the incidents connected with the unfortunate attempt of Laudonnière, in 1564, to found a Huguenot settlement in Florida. While following closely the historical facts as given by Mr. Parkman, he at the same time introduces enough of romance to relieve the gloom of the story, and to give it a thrilling interest. It is a pity that the illustrator had not reproduced some of Le Moyne's pictures, as, for instance, that showing the building of Fort Caroline, since this artist and author is one of the characters in the story.

'The John Spicer Lectures' (Boston: D. Lothrop Co.), by Mrs. A. M. Diaz, are talks by a boy of eight, on such subjects as Money, Food, Clothes, and Fourth of July, to an audience of children. They exhibit a keen appreciation of boyish character and tastes, and, while pure fun predominates, lessons in honesty, truthfulness, and unselfishness are at the same time shrewdly taught.

With the first number for July, *Science* effected a change in its size and price, enlarging the one and diminishing the other. Its quarto form is now somewhat smaller than the *Nation*'s.

More testimony in regard to the shocking havoc made by commercial plume collectors among the bird rookeries of Southern Florida is given in the *Auk* for July (New York: L. S. Foster). "I saw," writes a recent correspondent, "one whole wagon-load of the scapular plumes of *Ardea wardi*, at one point. It is a burning shame, and it would make your heart ache to hear the wails of the starving young birds whose parents have been killed. . . . Cannot something be done to stop such wicked slaughter?" On another page of the same periodical, an agreeable and, no doubt, humane writer tells of shooting a bluebird in New Brunswick to satisfy himself (and others) of the identity of a rare visitor, and of his remorse at having done so. He "almost cursed that professional incredulity which drives an amateur into acts of needless cruelty."

The opening article of the June number of *Petermann's Mitteilungen* (which is unusually interesting and varied in its contents) on the "Plant-zones of Japan" is followed by an investigation by the editor, Dr. A. Supan, into the temperature of Europe. This is accompanied by three maps so colored as to show the mean duration of the frost, warm, and hot periods. From the observations, taken at 471 stations, we learn that Malta is the hottest place in Europe, Nice in France, Bellinzona in Switzerland, Mannheim and Carlsruhe in Germany, and Barnstaple in England. Ernst Hartert gives an account of a visit to the Sultans of Sokoto and Gandu in the western Sudan, together with an elaborate description of the plants of the regions traversed. This is followed by a number of letters from Dr. Emin Pasha, extending from August 10, 1883, to October 26, 1886, and giving a graphic picture of a man wholly thoughtless of self in his devotion to his work and his people. Referring briefly to terrible marches through water breast high, to which was added "many times a little hunger," he hastens to say, "but these are private concerns which have no interest for you." His greatest grief is, not for his utter isolation and danger, but at the thought that his ten years' work seems to have been all for naught, "about to crumble into dust." There is now no slave trade in the Equatorial Province nor in that to the north. The Mahdi's insurrection has done thus much good "in driving out the Khartumers." At present, a small additional force with supplies could easily reconquer this whole region, and insure its peaceful development. "If help comes from any source, so much the better; if not, then will I fall on the field in which I have done my work." In order that by forced inaction he may not "sink into the condition of a beast," he considers what he can best do for science, and determines to make a thorough survey of Lake Albert and Beatrice Gulf. After an examination of Dr. Junker's journals and maps, he says that "the precision and conscientiousness of his work, together with the overpowering fulness of new materials, will place him in equal rank with the first of African travellers." His last letter refers with pardonable pride to the specimens, which he is sending to Europe, of the shoes, cloth, soap, tobacco, and grain which he has taught his people to manufacture and raise. The supplemental number, recently issued, is devoted to the first part of a monograph by Rudolf Credner, on the "Proofs of the Marine Origin of the so-called Inland Seas."

M. G. Rolland contributes to the *Revue Scientifique* for June 18 an interesting account of the work done by the French in the colonization and cultivation of the Sahara, especially the valley of Oued Rir, about 150 miles south of Constantine. This valley, which till recently was nearly all desert, but is now dotted over with small oases, he describes as "a little Egypt with a subterranean Nile." It is a narrow strip of land about 80 miles in length, the surface sand from 15 to 30 feet in depth lying upon a bed of clay 200 feet thick on an average. Below this, water is found in abundance, some hundreds of wells producing 130,000,000 cubic metres annually. The presence of some living springs seems to have suggested to the natives the art of boring artesian wells, for there are some with wooden pipes made in very remote times. He states that it is an incontestable fact that certain of these wells send out living fish, crabs, and mollusks of the same species as those which live in the surface waters. The chief agricultural product as yet is the date. The trees are planted on an average of about seventy-five to an acre, a little wider apart than the wild palms grow; but this permits grain, vegetables, and even cotton to be grown on the same ground. The trees begin to bear in five years, are at maturity at eight, and continue to produce from ten to sixty years. There are no indications that the limit of the water supply has been reached, but it is now proposed, in view of the rapid influx of colonists, to regulate the position and number of new wells dug.

The *Pall Mall Gazette* prints from *Le Livre* M. Octave Uzanne's accusation that "A Bookman's Purgatory" (included in Mr. Lang's papers on 'Books and Bookmen') is an impudent plagiarism from one of this French writer's 'Caprices d'un Bibliophile,' and the English paper adopts the charge with most offensive comments. Mr. Lang's "Bookman's Purgatory" was avowedly imitated from "L'Enfer d'un Bibliophile" of the late Charles Asselineau (who died before M. Uzanne's book was published). Although Mr. Lang had borrowed little more than the central idea of Asselineau's *conte*, he inserted in his little story an ingenious acknowledgment of his indebtedness.

The admirable collection of "Les Grands Écrivains Français," just begun, as our readers are aware, with M. Boissier's 'Mme. de Sévigné,' is obviously modelled on Mr. John Morley's series of "English Men of Letters," and bids fair to follow it in one unfortunate particular. Mr. Morley has neglected the English dramatists; there is as yet no volume on Shakspere, and the sketch of Sheridan by Mrs. Oliphant is quite the poorest book in the series. M. Jules Jusserand, the anonymous editor of the French collection, has already announced eighteen volumes, among which we find lives of only two dramatists, Racine and Voltaire. As yet there is no sign of a Beaumarchais, a Corneille, or a Molière, and all students of the French stage know the need of brief biographies of the first and the last of these three.

Benvenuto da Imola's Latin Commentary on the 'Divine Comedy' has been published, for the first time in its integrity, by Barbèra in Florence (New York: Christern). It makes five grand octavo volumes. The history of the enterprise is curious. The Dante Society of Cambrige, Mass., had determined to publish the commentary, and had charged Senator Pasquale Villari with the copying of the Codice Laurenziano, when Lord Augustus Vernon, recalling his father's interrupted project for publishing the same work, begged leave to assume the direction and cost of it now. To this the Dante Society acceded; but Lord Vernon dying like his father, the task devolved on his brother William, and at last the commentary sees the light.

H. Mereu writes, in the *Courrier de l'Art* for May 27, that his hasty impression of the new façade of the Duomo at Florence is unfavorable to its lasting esteem. He hopes, however, that the fate of Napoleon's façade to the Cathedral at Milan, constructed "à tambours battants," may not overtake it. "One may be," he says, "the Michael Angelo of politics, and only the Napoleon of architecture." Bonaparte's façade is to come down and give place to a better.

—The *Century* for July contains an interesting selection from the series of photographs in illustration of animal motion, taken by Mr. Muybridge under the auspices of the University of Pennsylvania. The sensation made some years ago when Mr. Muybridge first published his photographic studies on this subject, is still fresh, and much was hoped from the further investigation for which the necessary funds were secured. Thirty thousand dollars has been spent upon it, and the result is a photographic record of some 20,000 positions taken by birds, the lower animals, and man. In the present sketch it is stated that these more careful and perfect studies tend to "a reaction to the more familiar views of movement," and to conclusions that "somewhat redeem the unaided human eye from failure to catch the principle of animal locomotion." The automatic character of the motion, at first so striking, appears modified by individual peculiarities of the animal; and as a whole, according to Dr. Allen, whose views are here followed, "the history of animal movement is the development of the rear limbs for use as a spring and source of energy, and of the fore limbs as a basis of support." In race-horses, he says, the fore-limbs are "vaulting poles." We have no space to follow the subject out, and this article itself is merely a sketch, in which the illustrations give as much information as the text. The figures of the flight of birds, with the suggested analogy between their flight and the scientific stroke in rowing, are of great interest, and in the figures of horses it is worth noting that the position which sculptors have often been criticised for selecting, namely, that in which the two feet on the same side are raised, is precisely one shown in the series. The writer calls attention to this as a striking justification of the sculptor as against the critic, from the Parthenon down. The most important article in the number is a powerfully destructive criticism of the mind-cure and faith-healing superstition from Dr. Buckley.

—The most attractive article in the last number of *Les Lettres et les Arts* (Chas. Scribner's Sons) is the one in which M. Eugène Rendu recalls the life and influence of his relative, Jeanne

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Marie Rendu—in religion, Sœur Rosalie of the order of Saint Vincent de Paul. Likewise, the most beautiful of the illustrations is the portrait, engraved by Claude Ferdinand Gaillard, of this Sister of Charity, who for more than half a century reigned over the poorest quarters of Paris, as M. Rendu expresses it, "par le droit de la vertu et par la grâce de la charité," and who exercised so astonishing an influence over all ranks of Parisian society, from the Queen Marie-Amélie and the Empress Eugénie to the poorest workman of the faubourgs. M. Eugène Rendu, who is a personage himself in the Catholic world of France, the friend and collaborator of Lacordaire and Ozanam as a young man, and the lifelong laborer, officially and privately, for the primary instruction of the people, writes of this "saint of the faubourg" with the enthusiasm of one who has lived in the same *milieu*, and shared in the same social and religious movement, in which Sœur Rosalie was a power. A restrained and not at all unpleasant fragrance of devotion breathes from the whole paper, which is written with that refined and subtile elegance which gives to the style of the Catholic literature of the day, whether religious or worldly, a character quite distinct from all other French writings. "Dans le Val d'Arno" is a series of pictures and recollections of rural life and occupations at the villa or *fattoria* of an Italian friend, by M. Henry Cochin. The graceful text is sparingly but sufficiently illustrated by the delicate sketches of an Italian artist, Fabbi. "Le Pieux Ahmed" is a legend of Mohammedan India, related by M. Robert de Bonnières in the most satisfactory manner for a story-teller at once serious and respectful of his materials, and transparent enough to suggest his malicious enjoyment of their incongruity. In his "Sonnets militaires" the Vicomte de Borrelli continues a series of poems recently published under the title of "Les Mercenaires," a name given, for some reason, to the soldiers he commanded in the East. The sonnets are full of fervor and melody, but the artifices of their construction are not sufficiently concealed for complete poetic enjoyment. There is also the long article, suggested by the English Jubilee, "Victoria Regina," which was to have been expected, and the conclusion of "Aux Affaires étrangères," in which M. Paul Hervieu has again proved his fine quality as an artist by exciting the interest and sympathy of his readers by means of the most ungrateful materials.

—The eighth volume of the *Goethe-Jahrbuch* opens with a very successful heliogravure of a hitherto unknown bust of Goethe, which was found lying amid the furniture and other appurtenances of the newly opened Goethe house in Weimar. The bust shows a striking resemblance to the familiar "Apollo-Goethe" by Trippel, and would appear to be the original of that work. Coming to the text of the volume, we notice an innovation in the shape of two original poems—one by Ernst von Wildenbruch in memory of Wilhelm Scherer; the other, written by the novelist K. F. Meyer in answer to a request that he would describe in prose or verse the influence which Goethe had exerted upon himself. Next come several batches of letters, occupying in all a hundred and sixty pages. Taken together they serve to give a vivid idea of the cosmopolitan character of Goethe's interests, and of his relations with men. Only a few of them, however, notably those of Niebuhr, Oehlenschläger, Madame de Staël and the Humboldts, have any intrinsic interest as letters. The department of "Abhandlungen," or critical essays, contains three numbers: Von Loeper discusses the "Trilogy of Passion"; Victor Hehn, the philological indebtedness of Goethe to Luther's Bible; and Th. Süpfle, the literary influence of Goethe upon France. Under a third heading we have a copious assortment of miscellaneous notes and a still more copious bibliography for the year. An appendix reports concerning the German and English Goethe societies, and also contains a prospectus of the forthcoming Weimar edition of the poet's works. This edition, we learn, will appear in octavo volumes of 300 to 400 pages each, and will comprise four parts: first, the "works" proper, fifty volumes; second, the scientific writings, ten volumes; third, journals; and fourth, diaries. The number of volumes in parts three and four cannot yet be announced.

HUNT'S BRISTOL.

Bristol. By William Hunt. London: Longmans. 1887. 8vo, pp. xi, 230.

THE second contribution to the series of "Historic Towns," edited by Edward A. Freeman and Rev. William Hunt, is a book of substantial merit. It is the work of a painstaking student who has diligently and judiciously sifted his authorities. He has not, like Mr. Loftie in his 'London,' confined himself to inadequate printed sources, but has gone direct to the records in the Bristol archives, which he has exploited with the independent spirit of an original investigator. Bristol has been selected to represent the class of ancient English trading towns. Hence, special emphasis has been laid by Mr. Hunt on the development of its trade and industry, though the other phases of its history have not been neglected.

"The place," he says, "that Bristol holds in our national history is one of peculiar importance, for it was for centuries the greatest purely trading town in a country that owes its greatness to its trade. For centuries it was second only to London, and London at least, from very early times, has been something more than a city of merchants. Bristol history, indeed, does not begin until a period that seems almost modern, when one thinks of the relics that bear witness to the overthrow of Aquæ Solis, the forerunner of Bath, or of York, or Lincoln, or other cities of Roman times. For Bristol has always been an English town, and the first fact we know about it does not take us further back than about the year 1000. . . . Whatever and whenever the beginning of Bristol may have been, it is evident that its importance in the eleventh century was of recent growth. And it almost certainly owed its rise to trade with the Ostmen, as they were called, of the towns on the eastern and southern coasts of Ireland. . . . In the trade of Bristol with the Ostmen, the chief articles of export were slaves, and it seems to have been on the worst form of this traffic that the early prosperity of the town was founded" (pp. 1, 10, 11).

This short opening chapter, entitled "Beginnings," admirably illustrates a characteristic of the whole book, namely, the author's abstinence from idle speculations. This negative virtue is a refreshing novelty among writers on English topography. Chapter vi, "A New World," is of particular interest to Americans. It shows how active the Bristol merchants were in discovering and colonizing various parts of North America. Mr. Hunt, like the writer in the new 'Dictionary of National Biography,' adheres to the old view that Sebastian Cabot was born in Bristol, and not, as many eminent authorities have recently contended, in Venice (pp. 128, 129). The concluding chapter treats of the causes of the decline of Bristol trade and the efforts made to restore its commercial prosperity. "This decline was due to the general determination of commerce to the north of England, to the rapid rise of Liverpool, to the natural drawbacks of the port, to the ruin of the West India trade, and to a large extent, also, to the short-sighted policy which drove trade away from the city by the imposition of heavy local rates" (p. 208). Ever since the municipal reform of 1835, there has been a gradual improvement in the trade of the city.

We have found only a few errors of detail in Mr. Hunt's book. Among the principal sources for the history of Bristol, enumerated on page 7, Seyer's 'Charters, etc., of Bristol' (Bristol, 1812) should not be wanting. According to the 'Red Book of the Exchequer' and Tovey's 'Anglia Judaica,' the Jews left England in October, and not in July, 1290 (p. 30). On pages 52 and 82 the author alludes to "Cornesers, or corn dealers." This is evidently a misconstruction of "corvesers" ("corvesarii"), shoemakers, or, according to the definition of Du Cange, "sutores veterinarii, qui coris veteri utuntur." The statement on page 60 that the liberties of Bristol constituted the standard for five Irish and fourteen English towns, should have been hedged in by the words "at least." To the nineteen towns enumerated in the *Antiquary* (April, 1885), which was doubtless Mr. Hunt's source of information, Galway, Limerick, Rathcoole, Rathmore, and probably others, may be added. The lists of affiliated towns in the *Antiquary* do not pretend to be exhaustive.

In his account of the inception of English municipal government (pp. 53–56), the author adopts some of the prevalent errors concerning the gild merchant and the "commune." He tells us that in the twelfth century these terms were synonymous, that the grant of a gild merchant constituted a municipality, that this fraternity was the governing body, and held the "ferm," or rent, of the town. Recent German investigation, the fruits of which the insular mind is somewhat slow to gather in, has shown that all these views are wrong. Not a single charter to English towns in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries contains the grant of a "commune"; and the gild merchant was only a particular part of the town government with circumscribed functions. In a document of the year 1372 it is stated "that Bristol is an ancient borough with mayor, bailiffs, and a communa from time immemorial; that the burgesses had a free merchant guild, and that, in virtue of this guild, the mayor and bailiffs, their predecessors and successors, are used to take a certain fee from all admitted to the said guild for their own use." "Here," says Mr. Hunt, "we have a distinct declaration of the oneness of the merchant guild with the governing body of the town" (p. 57). In our opinion this passage proves nothing as to the "oneness" referred to; and the gild merchant and the "communa" are spoken of separately, as if they were two distinct conceptions.

In enumerating the liberties that were essential to a municipal borough (p. 54), the possession of courts distinct from those of the hundred and county should not have been omitted; this was doubtless more important than any other municipal privilege. In his account of the "great insurrection" of 1312 (pp. 63 71), the author deserves credit for ignoring the prevalent opinion that it was a contest between the gild merchant and the crafts. The documents relating to this trouble mention neither the one nor the other. Mr. Hunt does not speak of the crafts in this connection, but he seems to cling to the misconception that the merchant gild took part in the insurrection. From certain remarks on pp. 64 and 68 one would infer that an oligarchical government was already strongly established in Bristol in 1312. But all the evidence points merely to an unsuccessful attempt of fourteen burgesses to establish an oligarchy, which caused the uprising of that year. The author is right in emphasizing the value of the royal grant of 1373 by which Bristol was made a county, but he exaggerates its importance. True, it "freed Bristol men from all attendance on the courts of other shires, and from the intrusion of the sheriffs" (p. 84); but this, to a certain extent, was the case before 1373. Mr. Hunt should have pointed out that

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this new charter was only one of a progressive series of grants by which the administration of Bristol was freed from external interference, and he should have more clearly defined this new stage of municipal freedom.

In justice to the author, however, it must be said that when he now and then errs he does so by falling a little short of the whole truth, rather than by flagrant perversions of the truth in the form of positive misstatements. The few conspicuous errors that disfigure the book are put forth unobtrusively; and even they would doubtless have been in great part avoided, if a single reliable guide existed to give one even the fundamental facts of English municipal history. The work as a whole is well done; if all the volumes of the series equal this one in excellence, the undertaking will be eminently successful.

LABBERTON'S ATLAS.

New Historical Atlas and General History. By Robert H. Labberton. Townsend MacCoun.

We have from time to time noticed the successive revisions and enlargements of Labberton's Historical Atlas with great interest and approbation. The plan was excellent, and the execution in general satisfactory, and each revision was a positive improvement. For the object for which it was primarily designed—that of class instruction in historical geography—it has had no rival. All this commendation the book has richly deserved, even while we recognized some defects in execution and even some surprising mistakes in detail. Last winter the plates of the work were destroyed by fire, and the author and publisher have taken advantage of this occurrence to make an entirely new book, largely based upon the old, but with some features entirely changed.

In the first place, the fundamental character of the book is changed. It was originally an historical atlas, then an historical atlas with explanatory text; now it is a general history with illustrative maps. The maps are in great part the same as in the earlier editions, but appear now as subordinate to the text, which is greatly extended, and made into a complete and continuous general history. In this way a certain lack of proportion which was observable in the earlier text is avoided; when there must be a page of text to every map, it is easy to see that those periods at which there are frequent geographical changes will receive a fuller treatment than those periods, even more important perhaps, at which the map is more nearly stationary. The English Heptarchy, for example, occupied as much space (five maps) as European History from the Reformation to the French Revolution, and many important events were omitted entirely because they did not fit into the scheme of the atlas. In the new work it has been possible to avoid this disproportion. For example, the Heptarchy has three and a half pages in the new book (just about the same matter as in the old, the pages being larger), while thirty pages are given to the period from the Reformation to the French Revolution. As a result, we have a compendium of universal history which is really very complete and accurate. The principal criticism we should make upon it is an excessive number of names and dates which, *for the purposes of general history*, are unessential. We need say little about this historical portion; Mr. Labberton is so thorough and accurate an historical scholar that full dependence may in general be placed upon his statements. On page 29, in speaking of the Centuriate organization of Servius Tullius, the "camp-followers" are put down at *seven* centuries. It should be *five;* and "camp-followers" is a misleading expression for the musicians, mechanics, and light-armed troops who composed these five centuries. On page 68 the union of Burgundy with the empire should be 1032; 1016 was the date of the arrangement, which was consummated sixteen years later. The statement of the origin of the Feudal system (p. 72) is very inaccurate. The Franks did not divide the lands of Gaul among themselves, and the King did not at this period grant *beneficia* to be held of him "in return for acts of special service." On the same page *socage* is spelled *soccage*, and on the next page we read *Feudalisme.*

We shall subject the maps to a more careful scrutiny, because it is here that we find Mr. Labberton weakest. His historical knowledge and historical sense, as we have already observed, rank very high, and the plan of the maps is most excellent. But in *map-work* he has not always an accurate eye, and would seem not to have had a good proof-reader. In all the earlier editions, we have noted a number of unaccountable errors and inaccuracies; and although these have for the most part been corrected in the present edition, it is yet not at all free from blemishes of this nature. At the same time we consider it the best historical atlas for purposes of class instruction, and urge that the greatest pains be taken to make it faultless, or as nearly so as it is in the nature of school-books to be.

We will first note what appears to us to be a defect in proportion in the present edition. The editor has evidently been fascinated by the recent discoveries in the early history of the Orient, and has greatly expanded that part of his work. We have four full-page maps for the period before B. C. 1000—most valuable for any person studying or reading upon this period. But the whole series of important and instructive changes caused by the French Revolution and the Napoleonic wars are passed over unnoticed until we come to the greatest extent of the empire in 1810. The changes of the last generation, on the other hand, are given very well; in plate liv., however, the northern boundary of Greece is incorrectly indicated. The maps of Oriental history, which occupy the seven first plates, are so much a matter of recent and special scholarship that no one but a specialist would be qualified to criticise them. In plate ix. we find the misprints *Arcolis*, *Phalereus*, and *Thebes* (all the other names, as *Athenæ*, being in classic form). In plate xii. the division of Alexander's empire after the battle of Ipsus has been substituted for that after the death of Lysimachus—we think unadvisedly, as the empire of Lysimachus was very transient, and the older map gave the beginnings of Pergamus. The map after the battle of Magnesia is a valuable addition. In the small map of B. C. 74 Galatia is embraced in the Roman possessions, of which it did not form a part until B. C. 25; and in the map of B. C. 63 Galatia and Bithynia, as well as Lycaonia, are included in the "Roman Province of Asia." Plate xiii., "Latium and its Neighbors," is very unsatisfactory; misprints are *Tarquinia* and *Lalneum* (for *Labicum*); Præneste, Gabii, Nomentum, Lanuvium, Velitræ, and Antium are omitted, and a number of mythical or wholly unimportant towns inserted; the Volsci are not given, the Hernici are placed among the mountains occupied by the Æqui, while the Æqui are transferred to the valleys of the Tolerus and Velinus. If they had really lived there, they would not have been such troublesome neighbors to the Romans. In the lower map we read *M. Saeer* for *Mons Sacer*. In plate xiv. we find *Russellæ* (for *Rusellæ*), *Amiterum* (for *Amiternum*), *Lucretia* (for *Luceria*), Fl. *Aapus* (for *Anapus*), and *Vadimonium Lake* applied to *Lacus Sabatinus*—the real *Lacus Vadimonis* being much further to the north.

In the excellent group of maps, plate xv., Syracuse was not subject to Rome at the end of the First Punic War. And why the modern names *Vienna*, *Durance*, *Turin* mixed in with ancient names? In plate xvi., the West, 100 years after the Punic wars, the organized provinces ought to be distinctly marked off; but the student would infer that Numidia was an independent province, and that there were three in southern Gaul—*Provincia*, *Gallia Transalpina*, and *Gallia Narbonensis*, while *Illyrium* (for *Illyricum*) would not appear to be a province at all. In plate xvii., a valuable new map, we find *Arenticum* for *Aventicum*, *Juliamagus* for *Juliomagus*, *Autiosiodurum* for *Autesiodurum*, *Cadurei* for *Cadurci*, *Laureacum* for *Lauriacum*, *Vindolona* for *Vindobona*. In plate xviii., Celtic Britain, we have *Cantion* for the *Cantii*, *Trinovantes* for *Trinobantes*, while the Brigantes are not carried far enough to the north. In the map of the Roman Provinces, plate xix., the provinces of the early and the late Empire are mixed together in such a way as to make it wholly worthless for the purposes of historical study. In the maps of the subdivisions of the later Empire (plates xx. and xxi.) we have nowhere any clear representation of the four præfectures and thirteen dioceses; in xxi. the Vandals should be in Pannonia, while the Marcomanni were not at this period an important nation. It is also wholly misleading to place *English* on the German coast of the North Sea. In plate xxiii. we find *Riparian* for *Ripuarian* Franks. In the valuable series of English maps, from Green, two (for 674 and 685) have very properly been omitted; but it is a mistake not to have any map which shows the seven or eight kingdoms of the Heptarchy—which are a distinct and important list, even if there was no one period when all of them were in existence. In plate xxvii., Arabic ascendency under Walid I., Sicily and the other islands should not have the Saracen color. It would be proper to give Testry and Tours in this map, while Laon does not belong here. Pavia is put west of Milan. In plate xxviii., the division of Verdun, the name *Lorraine* is applied to the whole of Lothair's division. In plate xxx., *Spoleta* is printed for *Spoleto*. In plate xxxv. we find side by side the English name *Naples*, the Latin name *Beneventum*, and the Italian name *Salerno*. *Marseilles* is spelt *Marsielles*. In plate xxxvi., the English forms *Normandy* and *Flanders* stand by the French forms *Picardie* and *Bretagne*, while *Poitiers* stands for *Poitou*. During this period of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries western Europe is excellent—France even more fully treated than necessary—but for the east of Europe it is very inadequate. In plate xli. Glarus should form a part of the Swiss Confederacy.

For the modern maps we have little but praise. In plate xlv. we find *March* for *Marck*. There is a valuable series of American maps, much improved from the earlier edition; in the several land grants we miss that to the Duke of York. The genealogical tables are also very full and good. In No. xii. *Goleazzo* is printed for *Galeazzo*. In No. xxv. it is a mistake not to put the sons of Henry II. in the order of age—*Godfrey* (put by mistake for *Geoffrey*) stands after John, while Henry is omitted. There is an index and a table of contents with an excellent bibliography.

A serious defect in many maps of the earlier editions was want of proportion in distances, and inaccuracy in the situation of places. This defect has generally, but not always, been corrected in the present edition.

This may seem a formidable list of corrections; but many of them are misprints merely, and although some of them are sufficiently serious, they do not affect our judgment as already expressed—that for purposes of instruction there is nothing to compare with this book, while as a reference atlas it is probably the best in English. For the

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latter purpose it could still be improved by taking pains to insert at their proper epochs names of important battle-fields, etc., and omitting them at periods which they do not illustrate.

Episodes in a Life of Adventure. By Laurence Oliphant. Harper & Bros.

It is always dangerous for a man to hazard the assertion that his neighbors are all lunatics. It is too much like the outcry, "All men are liars," and the Cretans "always" so. Mr. Oliphant's present outlook upon the world is that it is "a gigantic lunatic asylum" (p. 342), and his attitude to his readers is that of "compassion" (p. 343), with "attachment." Fortunately for buyers, readers, and hasty critics, he has penned his most amazing chapter last of all, so that many of the lunatics and compassionated ones may escape its reading. We suspect that his entire scrap-book, or bundle of pamphlets—we can hardly suppose a fresh manuscript—was made for the purpose of publishing that colophon. Being now engaged upon investigations in psychic phenomena, Mr. Oliphant is encouraged by the results thus far achieved, and believes that "a new moral future is dawning upon the human race." Meanwhile, since ordinary mankind does not believe this, being perfectly willing to think the present world good enough, our author launches a book out of his portfolio, describing that portion of his life which, he assures us, appeared to him "distinctly as a most insane period" (p. 342).

We lunatics must confess that, according to our feeble minds, the episodes in Mr. Oliphant's life of adventure are well told; for this writer of many books—here so well advertised in foot-notes—has a readable and fascinating style. His opportunities were such as fall rarely to the lot of one man. We do indeed wonder, even as we wondered when reading Hobart Pasha's autobiography, how a man can have any conscience left after he has been so large a personal part of the episodes narrated. Perhaps, however, it is a symptom of our lunacy when we say that this is apart from the literary value of the book, which is considerable. Mr. Oliphant's story, like so many other good ones we have read, gains nothing, but loses distinctly, by having a moral tacked on the end. He had much better have spared his compassion and his moral, and given us a good index of honest workmanship. He would have saved not only our perplexity in locating the lunacy which he harps upon—whether in his head or ours—but would have allayed our natural suspicion that his book-making, in this instance, is contract work for a publisher, or the hasty emptying of a portfolio to provide means for his psychic researches.

The episodes described are those of diplomacy, filibustering, visits to out-of-the-way places in the interest of curiosity or pursuit of knowledge, war correspondence, and travel. "The Overland Route Forty-six Years Ago" and "Revolutionary Episodes in Italy in 1848," give us a good picture of the facilities of travel in that day, and provoke a contrast with the appliances and possibilities of our own time. In "My First Experiences in Diplomacy" we touch upon American affairs, and are intensely interested in seeing ourselves as others see us. A lively picture of Washington before the war, as seen by a young and verdant Briton, is given in this chapter. Soft-shell crabs and champagne lying upon Congressional stomachs, and the outward blandishments and flatteries of Lord Elgin, seemed, to our young diplomatist's eyes, the potencies that secured the reciprocity treaty between the United States and Canada. Strangely enough, Mr. Oliphant names the figure-heads of the British Commission, but not Sir Ambrose Shea, by whose efforts mainly the treaty was made and carried through. He probably includes this most important person in the Treaty Commission in the "one or two Canadians whose advice and assistance in the commercial questions to be treated were of value." In another chapter, "Adventures in Central America," in his description of the Confederate States immediately after the war, he draws an interesting comparison between the nature and extent of the resistance and exhaustion of the Confederates and those of the French during the German invasion. In the one case, "ruin and devastation marked the track of invading armies over vast tracts of country, and testified alike to the severity of the struggle and the obstinacy of the resistance." Having marched with the German armies through most of the Franco-Prussian war, he says that, "except immediately around Paris and in one or two isolated localities like Châteaudun, it [the conflict] left no traces at all," showing "the flimsy nature of the resistance which had been offered." He declares: "The Franco-German battles were essentially artillery combats; and that, with the exception of one or two of the earlier battles, such as Speichern and Gravelotte, the opposing forces never came to close quarters at all." "During the Loire campaign . . . both sides played at such long bowls that it was very difficult, even with the aid of a field glass, to see a Frenchman." With this he contrasts the case in the American war, when, towards the close, "both sides almost abandoned artillery as a useless arm, and a source of weakness rather than strength when men, not to be deterred by noise, rushed in on the guns." "If the German armies had found themselves confronted with the comparatively raw and untrained levies of the American rebellion, they would have discovered that there is another art of war altogether from that in which they have perfected themselves, of which they have had as yet no experience, and which consists in an invincible determination to get at close quarters with the enemy as quickly as possible, and, if necessary, to die there rather than come away."

In the Asiatic possessions of Great Britain and in China and Japan, Mr. Oliphant's episodes were thrilling; and his review of the events in the hermit stage of these countries is all the more interesting reading by contrast with the present. We wonder whether it is still true, as Lord Elgin wrote twenty years ago: "I have seldom, from man or woman since I came to the East, heard a sentence which was reconcilable with the hypothesis that Christianity had ever come into the world." In his account of "The Attack on the British Legation in Japan in 1861," in which Mr. Oliphant lost blood, he illustrates that British impenetrability to ideas for which some of his eminent countrymen are noted. On page 111 he speaks of the visit of Lord Elgin's party to Yedo, as though this was the first time foreigners had entered it. On the contrary, Mr. Townsend Harris had previously lived nearly a year in the city, and he, with a party of twenty-eight Americans from the United States steamship *Mississippi*, had taken up his quarters, establishing the Legation of the United States in Yedo July 8, the English party not arriving until August 12 of the same year. Mr. Oliphant still calls the Japanese who attacked the British Legation Lonins, when there is no *l* in Japanese; and seems even yet, in the twentieth year of the present Mikado's reign, to be without a clear understanding of the causes of that event. The rō-nins, or "wave-men," rovers, who had severed the tie of feudal loyalty to their former masters, he speaks of as "belonging to Prince Mito." While they had once served that baron, their object in shedding English blood and attempting to burn the foreigners' legation was a simple one—to embroil the shō-gun ("Tycoon") in a war with Great Britain or some other treaty power. The Yedo government thus weakened, the Mikado could the more easily crush the shō-gunal usurpation, and restore ancient monarchy.

The remainder of the book, notably the account of the Polish Insurrection and the Schleswig-Holstein war, is readable and full of graphic details.

Initials and Pseudonyms: a Dictionary of Literary Disguises. By William Cushing. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 1886. 610 pages, double columns.

Mr. Cushing states in the preface, what might appear to advantage in the title, that this compilation is designed as a dictionary of American and English initials and pseudonyms. The few Continental examples given represent the subject so feebly that it would have been better to omit them, unless, like the "Bibliophile Jacob" and "George Sand," foreign authors have become in a sense English through translations. If, also, biographical details, especially those not literary, had been reduced to a closer limit, this book would have cost less and reached more persons. Information regarding Balzac's struggles with poverty, for instance, and the "wunderful vissisytoods" of Joseph Barber, the "Disbanded Volunteer," could better be found elsewhere.

Turning over the pages of this book and the larger collections of Halkett and Laing, Barbier, Quérard, and Weller, one is astonished at the extent of this kind of literature, and puzzled to know on what it feeds. Franklin describes in his autobiography how, when a boy, wishing to write for his brother's paper, and suspecting that anything of his might be rejected if its source were known, he wrote an anonymous paper in a disguised hand, which he placed at night under the door of the printing-office. When his brother showed the paper to his friends, he "had the exquisite pleasure of finding that it met with their approbation, and that in their different guesses at the author none were named but men of some character among us for learning and ingenuity." This story suggests one of the reasons why concealment is so common among authors, especially those who are like certain unknown quantities in algebra which have no fixed value, but depend upon assumption. The unknown is always wonderful, and, given mist enough, one may appear of the proportions of the Spectre of the Brocken. Often the motive is a desire to disarm criticism. The Brontë sisters confess that in veiling their names they did not declare themselves women because they suspected that "authoresses" were looked upon with prejudice. Equally unwilling to appear in men's attire, they selected names which might belong to either sex. An aversion to publicity may arise from timidity. The would-be author, while doubtful of welcome, may prefer concealment. "I shall write first to see if I can write; then for money, and then for fame," announced a young Southern woman calling herself "Viola." It is during the tentative period, while testing one's powers and the endurance of the public, that an assumed name is found convenient.

As the cothurnus magnified the appearance of the Athenian actor, a well-selected pseudonym serves to give dignity and attract attention. Readers of pamphlets and newspapers published seventy-five years or more ago, when questions of the formation of government were under discussion, know how often such worthies as "Brutus," "Cato," "Phocion," "Publius," and "Algernon Sidney" appear—not, however, representing as many individual writers. Samuel Adams wrote over the signatures "Candidus," "Populus," "Sincerus," "Valerius Poplicola," and other names, his plan having been to work in secret behind the scenes, from motives of tact putting

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others conspicuously in the foreground; and while these disguises may sometimes have been too transparent to deceive the public, the effect probably was, by multiplying himself, to create public opinion. Doubtless he concealed himself at times from expediency, as then became a man prudent as well as bold.

Earnestness is less apparent in anonymous literature in recent times. On the contrary, authors of solid books occasionally drop their own names when they turn aside for relief to lighter work, as when the mathematical lecturer at Oxford steps down from his desk to appear as "Lewis Carroll" in 'Alice's Adventures in Wonderland.' M. Rivail gave up his own name, attached to his books on education, to assume that of "Allan Kardec," when writing on spiritualism. Sometimes there may be a suspicion that the unacknowledged work will prove to be rubbish; in that case, like the mist which enveloped the Trojan heroes, a pseudonym enables one to retreat undetected and unharmed.

A disguised name has been found to give an advantage in controversy. Since the time of "Junius," political satire would have lost half its sting if its authors had been obliged to stand responsible for it under their own signatures. Concealment adds both length and edge to the sword, which may be drawn in a bad or questionable cause as well as a good one. M. Philarète Chasles has described how, during the eighteenth century, English writers "deliberately renounced the lustre of their own names, and sacrificed their vanity to their interest or passion, concealing their names and disguising their hands to carry out their work better."

Mr. Cushing has been a laborious and careful worker, and his book is more comprehensive and accurate than its predecessors published in this country. It is gratifying to learn that it has received so generous a welcome that this revised edition has been published, in which many of the errors of the first edition have been corrected. Errors must of course be expected in compilations of this kind, which deal with shadows. Often, as in the case of the Nihilistic writer "Stepniak," a book is ascribed to several persons, no one of whom may be responsible for it. The true author may be discovered only as a city is taken—by gradual approaches; and during this process much that is printed needs to be cancelled. There still remains a great work to be done in this department of research; indeed, as far as English literature is concerned, only a beginning has been made. Mr. Cushing acknowledges his indebtedness to a friend who has furnished one-sixth of his titles. Credit might properly have been given also specifically to others, as to the *Library Journal*, which for ten years has had a department of anonyms and pseudonyms, containing largely original matter. Information of this sort is obtained with great labor, through correspondence and in other ways, and deserves to be regarded as literary property.

Altaic Hieroglyphs and Hittite Inscriptions. By C. R. Conder, Capt. R. E., Author of 'Tent Work in Palestine,' etc. Scribner & Welford. 1887.

In reviewing W. Wright's 'Empire of the Hittites' (No. 1022 of the *Nation*) we made an attempt to characterize the flimsiness of the foundations on which the pretentious structure of Hittite archæology has been reared in our day. We showed some striking instances of the critical levity with which tentative identifications and more than dubious analogies are made to serve as scaffoldings for vast aerial constructions. Of the best equipped and comparatively most conscientious laborer in that new field of antiquarian restoration, Prof. Sayce of Oxford, who, perhaps, has the best chance of being called the father of Hethology, we could only say that he was "piling guesses and surmises upon conjectures and hypotheses." Yet, with all our experience of Hethological practices, we were far from being prepared for such an advance in that line as Capt. Conder unfolds before us in his latest work. He boldly embraces the entire extent of "Hittite" remains—Syrian, Cappadocian, Lydian, and all; establishes a Cypriote "connection," a Cuneiform connection, an Egyptian connection, a Canaanite connection, and wonderfully numerous "other connections" in the most remote east and west of the Old World; combines the whole of the Hittite inscriptions in the widest sense into an Altaic system; and professes "to have found a true key to the reading of the Altaic system"—a key "simple and demonstrable"—and "to have identified the language of these texts as belonging to the family of Ugro-Altaic dialects, of which the Proto-Medic and the Accadian are, perhaps, the oldest known examples," and the Magyar and Finnish the most noteworthy living idioms.

Capt. Conder also endeavors to show "that the symbols are the prototypes whence the Cuneiform system has developed." He treats of the rules of translation, of "Altaic" grammar, and religious ideas, more extensively of the "Altaic" symbols, and then presents an analysis of the various Altaic inscriptions as found at Hamath, Aleppo, Jerabis, Marash, Ibriz, etc. The Jerabis Text No. 1 is presented as the most distinct and best-preserved of all "Altaic hieroglyphs," and the following as a probably correct verbatim translation of it:

"1. Prayers-his (stone Set ?) -him-to for Fire flames-growth-for-to-ing. King king . . . . ing. God (Ane) become words to strong. . . . .

"2. . . . to . . . (flow ?) Tamzu-Aa to. Fire-flames-grow-for-ing King over king descending right (or propitious) become Thee mighty Set strength.

"3. (the memorial to ?). Thee . . . watering Set Bull-water-of-to prayer-memorial for thee for, thou (accept ?) stone (of) Set sheep-water-of-to . . . protect to Thou . . . meing become for."

We omit the last two stanzas of the memorial hymn, as differing little from the first three. Nor shall we enter into an analysis of the analysis, being ourselves possessed of too little Proto-Medic, Accadian, and general "Altaic" knowledge, presupposing little of it in our readers, and seeing that the author himself uses throughout second hand knowledge, and that mainly drawn from the contributions of Prof. Sayce. The work of the latter, we are distinctly told, "stands in quite a different category to that of other students of the Altaic inscriptions," being "marked by a penetration and originality which others have not equalled," and entitled to claim the present discovery as "its direct result." This being the case, and finding that the highest Hethological authority has expressed his opinion on the value of his disciple's Altaic key (in the London *Academy* of May 21), we for once deviate from our rule not to copy reviewers in reviewing, and deferentially make room in these columns for the master's judgment on the cardinal point of the argument:

"The reasons . . . which led Capt. Conder to his belief that Accadian words are concealed under Hittite symbols were all based on a misapprehension. *Me* or *ma* is *not* the word for 'country' in either Accadian or 'Protomedic'; in Accadian the word is *mada* and *kengi*, in 'Protomedic' *murun*. . . . Sceptre in Accadian is not *pa* but *gisdar*; *pe* probably means 'a leaf.' *Ku* is not the 'Protomedic' word for 'King,' which (as Oppert long ago discovered) is *anin*. . . . *Khar* does not mean 'mountain' in Accadian, and there *is* 'a real distinction' between the sounds of *l* and *r* in that language; *kakama* is not the Accadian word for 'amen,' but an ideographic mode of writing *erimma*,' afterwards contracted into *ri*; *sa* and not *ua* means 'and'; and though *zu* certainly is 'thou,' the Kypriote character read *zu* by Capt. Conder has been shown by Dr. Deecke to have the value of *nos*. . . . When the supports of Capt. Conder's Accadian theory thus fall away, it is not necessary to discuss the interpretations of the inscriptions which he has based upon it."

An Easter Vacation in Greece, etc. By John Edwin Sandys. Macmillan & Co.

It is not permitted to everybody to go to Corinth, and Athens is still further away; but if it is permitted to everybody who goes to print his journal, the world will come to pray that some wide disaster may close the road to Greece. Dr. John Edwin Sandys and his wife, having made a vacation run to Greece, lasting from March 17, when they left Cambridge, to April 20, when they left Corfu (the author adding considerately, at the end of the book, that he got back for the beginning of the term on the 30th of April), Dr. Sandys perforce must write thereon a book! Duller than ditch-water it is, but it has one quality which renders it of interest to the bibliophobe—it shows lucidly how little brain-work it takes to make a book. It is not clear, by any means, that the Doctor is deficient in brain power—his degree, "Litt. D.," is presumptive guarantee that he is not; but the journal of his sojourn of twenty-six days in Greece, "kept at the time for my own convenience only, and now printed [for that of the printer, possibly] with such slight omissions and additions as appeared requisite to render it suitable for another purpose," might have been made far more useful and complete if it had been compiled from the last edition of Murray, without leaving Cambridge. He quotes Baedeker, apparently ignorant that it is published in English, for he says that "the routes of the steamers, though duly recognized in Baedeker's 'Griechenland,' are imperfectly known to English travellers in Greece"; and he seems to have been so little observant that he did not learn that "Baedeker's 'Griechenland'" (by which he evidently was guided, for he sees nothing that is not given in it) is the most inaccurate guide-book published, probably, since Marco Polo—so inaccurate, indeed, that a scholar had better take Pausanias and stick to him. The delusive portability of the guides of this house (outside of Germany) betrays travellers into great loss of labor; but especially for Greece and Italy they are treacherous and untrustworthy as information, and silly as comment, to a degree incredible in a German publication. The fact that Dr. Sandys did not discover this, shows that he depended very little on the use of his own wits. If people will depend on a guide-book for what they see in travelling, they should, at least in Greece, use Murray, which, though heavier and of a higher price, is cheaper as being far more complete and accurate.

Seriously, the triviality of this book is beyond exaggeration. The journal begins with the journey to Folkstone, and goes through with the barest school-boy diary of what the travellers saw every day, from Paris to Peiræus and then on, which, we are fully persuaded, was ever put into print except in a comic journal. It seems inconceivable that a Cambridge scholar should consider it worth while to make a book of such commonplaces as the following:

"The sky was brilliantly beautiful when we went on deck at seven o'clock, and, in the pearly light of our first Greek morning, saw the sunlit hills of Salamis. We were rowed ashore by two boatmen, who landed us at the custom-house, which happens to be on the site of a temple founded by Conon in memory of the battle of Cnidus; and after going through the formal ceremony of walking past the courteous officers of the customs, we were soon driving along the five miles of dusty road to Athens, catching one or two glimpses of the Acropolis on the way. At the further end of the long street of Hermes,

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which runs from the Theseum [!] and the railway station on the west to the Royal Gardens and the Square of the Constitution on the east, we found our hotel, the Hôtel des Etrangers, looking out upon the green trees which are a relief to the eye after the glare of the surrounding streets. An excellent room was ready for us, and we arranged to stay for a week, paying a sum equivalent to £1 a day for both of us; this charge including lodging, meals, and attendance."

And so on, as if nobody had ever been in Greece, through 110 pages, at the end of which the Muse, as in duty bound, gets the Doctor by the hair and extorts from him a full page of such music as the following:

"Farewell to all the classic land,
The fame-encircled Attic strand;
August Athena's matchless fane,
Colonus 'mid the olive plain"

—a *catalogue raisonné* of everything he saw in Greece, with the one virtue the diary has not—that of brevity.

The author has been at the trouble to print a bibliography of travel in Greece which hardly justifies his book, and a time-table of steamers in Greece, of which he remarks the absence in the guide-books. If he had learned the reason of the absence, viz., that the times of sailing are continually changing, so that tables are of no use beyond the season, he would have been spared another appendix even more useless than his bibliography. Appendices, when they are added to a book that is worth having, have sometimes a permanent value, but nobody publishes a book for the sake of the appendices, and nobody is likely to carry Dr. Sandys's book to Greece for the sake of his.

On Teaching English. By Alexander Bain. D. Appleton & Co. 1887.

THIS work is supplementary to the author's text-book on rhetoric. He says that the great principle of teaching is to call the pupils to account for "the matters actually imparted in teaching"; and he would confine the art so closely to mere instruction and examination, imparting and extracting in turn, that he strenuously objects to original composition, and hardly tolerates paraphrasing as a means of teaching our language. He prefers a minute criticism of passages from writers of reputation, and recasting them, not for the sake of change of vocabulary and phrase, but only to better them or show that they cannot be bettered. He objects, also, to the use of our standard authors, and has a special antipathy to Bacon and Shakspere, to read whom is, in one of his expressions, "to abolish the three intervening centuries." The greater portion of the volume is occupied with a precise criticism of several poems of our literature, with a view to illustrate how they should be used in teaching English; and Prof. Bain also tries to define poetry. More inept criticism, greater practical misconception of the methods of the poet, and a more indifferent blindness to his point of view, we have not met with in a book from so eminent a hand. The power of suggestiveness is to him only feeble obscurity, and at all points he requires a dryness of intellectual light which leaves only the facts of experience as scientifically discerned and ready for tabulation. Such a writer naturally prefers Wordsworth's "Skylark" to Shelley's, and seems to think that even then too much is made of a very small bird; and one is not surprised to find him citing the more rhetorical parts of Pope with thorough satisfaction. A good example of his poetic incapacity is the analysis of Dryden's "Ode on St. Cecilia's Day," in which his judgments are ludicrously inapplicable, as when he seriously refers to the "necessarily humble character of Jubal's original shell" as a reason why his brethren could not have been so much affected by its "celestial sound" as Dryden represents. But the critic reaches his acme when he describes the magnificent last line of the ode, figuring the trumpet-blast of the Last Judgment—

"And music shall untune the sky"

—as "obscure or insufficient."

For ourselves, we decline to accept Sir Arthur Helps as "completely superseding" Bacon, even in the single essay on "Business"; we cannot think Shakspere will be sufficiently known by our youth through quotations from him in other books; original essay-writing seems to us to have a value in education, and the extracting by examination matters imparted by an instructor strikes us as a narrow view of the office of the pedagogue; and as for poetic criticism, commend us to some other professor, and preferably to one who will not cite "In Memoriam" as an attempt "to disparage geology," or remark, apropos of Goldsmith's famous line, that "much more than a breath is necessary to make princes and lords."

Grundzüge der Meteorologie. Die Lehre von Wind und Wetter. Von H. Mohn. Vierte verbesserte Auflage. Berlin: D. Reimer. 1887.

MOHN'S 'Meteorology' may be characterized as an eminently safe book. The author is Professor of Meteorology in the University at Christiania, and director of the Norwegian Meteorological Institute; he holds a distinguished position as an investigator of observed phenomena, and, jointly with his colleague, Prof. Guldberg, has contributed several papers to the deductive and mathematical study of atmospheric movements. His book, therefore, presents a view of the elements of meteorology as seen from the higher level of advanced knowledge, and consequently has nothing in common with compilation text-books, which are written, as it were, from the under side of their subjects. The paragraphs on the constitution and movements of cyclones may be referred to as good illustrations of mature and conservative views. On the other hand, the style of the book is rather too authoritatively didactic for our modern conceptions of the best teaching. It would suit very well those teachers who depend on the text-book for their knowledge of the subject; their students could memorize and recite page after page, and thereby harmlessly acquire a large body of good facts. It would also suit those rare teachers who use a text-book only as they use a dictionary, and make up the work of the class from their own knowledge. But the average teacher, who needs from the text-book some assistance in his method of presentation, as well as some addition to his store of facts and definitions, will find this book rather too hard for him: his scholars will be instructed, but not trained; they will learn something about meteorology, but they will not learn how to learn anything more. In short, Mohn's book is so good that it needs a good teacher to use it.

The recent supply of valuable works on meteorology is remarkable. Buchan of Edinburgh has revised his 'Text-book' in his article in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica'; Scott, of the British Weather Service, has a volume on 'Elementary Meteorology' in the "International Scientific Series"; Van Bebber, of the German Weather Service at Hamburg, has prepared an exhaustive work on weather prediction; Sprung, lately a colleague of Van Bebber's, now engaged in the Prussian Meteorological Institute at Berlin, has written an admirable text-book of dynamical meteorology; and Ferrel, lately a professor in our Signal Office, has completed a volume on 'Recent Advances in Meteorology,' to which his earlier researches led the way. The allied subject of climatology has two works—one, by Hann of Vienna, than whom no one is more competent; the other, by Woeikoff of St. Petersburg, originally in Russian, and now translated into German. The ambitious meteorologist is well supplied with books, provided only that he can do what all ambitious students must do—read German.

Life of John Colet, D.D. With an Appendix of Some of his English Writings. By J. H. Lupton, M. A., Submaster of St. Paul's School, and formerly Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge. London: George Bell & Sons. 1887. Pp. xiv, 323.

MR. LUPTON has already made his own all that pertains to Colet; his successive editions of the Dean's works before unpublished, from the 'De Sacramentis' in 1867 to the 'Opuscula' in 1876, having done as much as anything to make Colet something more than the shadow of a mighty name. This 'Life' is thus a fitting close to the series of Mr. Lupton's publications in the same field. As a biography it is disappointing on account of the exceedingly meagre material available, and the strange uncertainty which attaches to many features of Colet's life. Indeed, it is part of the value of Mr. Lupton's work that several of the certainties of Knight and other biographers are resolved into uncertainties under the analysis of his profounder research. Thus he shows that the commonly accepted opinion that Colet was educated at St. Anthony's School and at Magdalen College (an opinion advanced without qualification in the 'Britannica,' we notice) rests upon little more than conjecture. It is strange that the contemporaries of a man who so strongly impressed himself upon his age should have permitted important facts of his life to fall into such obscurity; the pious effort of Erasmus to embalm the memory of his friend accomplishing little, owing to English indifference.

The book is written in all scholarly soberness. The full learning of the author on all the points he touches makes his occasional conjectures always plausible and suggestive. For the most part, however, he is content to show what is known, and to leave the unknown with no guesses about it. When he does undertake a Cuvier-like restoration at the hint of a fragment, he sketches extinct forms with the hand of a master. Life at Oxford at the close of the fifteenth century, for example, rises before the reader vividly. On the ground of strict relevancy to the subject, there may be thought to be something too much of such affluent illustration of a possibility—four pages of description of Florence, for instance, her teachers, philosophers, and preachers follow the supposition "if his [Colet's] steps were really turned to Florence" (p. 50); but one in search of pleasant and instructive reading will advance no objection on that score. The great school which had its birth in the Dean's foresight and generosity and love of learning, remains his best memorial. In striking contrast with certain founders of our own day, who thought that wisdom would die with them, is the long look into the future taken by Colet in the statutes of St. Paul's: "Notwithstanding these statutis and ordinancis," is their closing section, "in whiche I have declarid my mynde and will, yet because in tyme to cum many thingis may and shall surwyne [supervene] and grow by many occasions and causis, which at the makyng of this boke was not possible to come to mynde, . . . I leve it hooly to theyr dyscrecion and charite, I mean of the Wardens and Assistences of the Felowshipp, with suych other counsell as they shall call unto theme, good litterid and lernyd menne, they to adde and diminish unto this boke, and to supply in it every defaute, and also to declare in it every obscurite and derknes, as tyme and place and just occasion shall requyre." His famous Convocation sermon, given in full in the appendix, reminds one,

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in its fearless plainness of speech and direct stroke, of Luther and Savonarola, and would alone make good Green's assignment of Colet to a place among the Reformers before the Reformation.

The Shaybacks in Camp. Ten Summers under Canvas. By Samuel J. Barrows and Isabel C. Barrows. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1887.

THESE unwearied campers have spent all but one of their ten summers on the shore of Lake Memphremagog; and by going always to the same spot, and storing utensils and conveniences from one year to another, they appear to be as well provided for residence there as one would be in a country house. It is not camping of the old-fashioned kind, with discomforts and make-shifts unexpected and innumerable, of which perhaps the chief use is to remind us of our civilization; but, quite the contrary, the "Shaybacks" progress instead of barbarizing, and end their first decade with a steam-launch and a substantial well-chinked log hut, to say nothing of hammocks for pews during meeting time. The volume which they have published contains the history of this evolution, and is brightened by some anecdotes of mild adventure, principally in navigating the steam launch; but its value lies in the hints and explicit advice it gives in regard to family camps, and its account of how this particular camp conducts its domestic and foreign affairs. The success of "the Shaybacks" is beyond question, and Lake Memphremagog seems to be an admirable spot for further experiment in the process of returning to savage life and re-emerging from it. Perhaps it would be as well to start with a steam-launch and a log hut, and see if one could not work up to hired stokers and a French cook. The book is agreeable reading, though its adventures are, as has been said, of a mild order, and its reflections have just the tenuity that consists with the absolute nirvana of a true camp life.

Prose Pastorals. By Herbert Milton Sylvester. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 1887.

SUMMER volumes which describe the life of nature have become very common of late, and they betray a tendency usually either towards the specialty of natural history or the generality of an Emersonian reflectiveness. Mr. Sylvester has the Emersonian characteristic, but it has a poetic rather than philosophic turn, and does not interfere with his giving his readers a very natural picture of the old home of his boyhood, a farm somewhat to the southward of the White Hills, in the midst of scenery and homely tasks dear to the New England heart. The author's own honest and unrestrained pleasure in his recollections, his attachment to the homestead and all the doings of his young life there, make the pleasantest quality of the book. There is next to nothing of character and no human nature except his own in the pages; but he has the artist's eye and the fisherman's infatuation, and gives us still life and speckled trout in about equal profusion. A definite portion of the volume is devoted to angling in the White Mountains, which may be of some special interest to brothers of that craft; but the atmosphere and the scenes of the remainder are in one general tone, almost a monotone. Were it not for a forest fire, with its aftergrowth of blackberry-vines, a swamp which one thinks would have rewarded further exploration, and an admirably described boyhood ride to the market-town in the small hours of the night, with all the morning changes of light, mist, and sound, the volume would have had no more variety than a succession of summer days in the quiet country it makes poetical.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Appleton, G. W. A Terrible Legacy. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Bacon, Prof. E. F. Leitfaden zum Erlernen der deutschen Sprache. Clark & Maynard.
Barbey d'Aurevilly, J. Le Théâtre contemporain. Paris: Frinzine; Boston: Schoenhof.
Boissier, G. Mme. de Sévigné. Paris: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof.
Bridgman's Indexed Map of the Environs of New York City. E. C. Bridgman. $4.
Confessions of a Society Man. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Delitzsch, Prof. F. A Day in Capernaum. Funk & Wagnalls.
Field, P. B. Canvas Canoes: How to Build Them. *Forest and Stream* Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Garlanda, F. The Fortunes of Words. A. Lovell & Co.
Gilman, A. Historical Readers. 3 vols. Interstate Publishing Co. 36, 48, 60 cents.
Haggard, H. R. Allan Quatermain. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.; New York: Geo. Munro.
Horr, N. T., and Bemis, A. A. Municipal Police Ordinances. Robert Clarke & Co.
Hugo, V. Things Seen. Harper & Brothers. 25 cents.
Johnson, Virginia W. The House of the Musician Boston: Ticknor & Co. 50 cents.
Johonnot, J. Ten Great Events in History. D. Appleton & Co. 63 cents.
Lefingwell, A. The Mystery of Bar Harbor. G. W. Dillingham. $1.
Littell's Living Age. Vol. 53. Boston: Littell & Gay.
Lyall, Edna. In the Golden Days: A Novel. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Marlitt, E. The Old Mam'selle's Secret. New ed. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 25 cents.
McCray, Florine T. Environment: A Story of Modern Society. Funk & Wagnalls.
Mead, T. H. Horsemanship for Women. Harper & Brothers.
Meyer, C. F. The Monk's Wedding; A Novel. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. $1.25.
Morrison, G. B. The Ventilation and Warming of School Buildings. D. Appleton & Co. 75 cents.
O'Reilly, Rev. B. Life of Leo XIII. Chas. L. Webster & Co.
Peterson, H. Bessie's Six Lovers. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 50 cents.
Pierson, E. De L. Society Verse by American Writers. Benjamin & Bell.
Pirkis, C. L. A Dateless Bargain. D. Appleton & Co. 30 cents.
Reese, Lizette W. A Branch of May: Poems. Baltimore: Cushings & Bailey.
Renan, E. Discours et Conférences. Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof.
Richard the Third and the Primrose Criticism. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Riddell, Mrs. J. H. Miss Gascoigne: A Novel. D. Appleton & Co. 25 cents.
Robinson, F. W. 99 Dark St. Harper & Brothers. 15 cents.
Sachau, Prof. E. Alberuni's India (A. D. 1030). London: Trübner & Co.
Saltus, E. Mr. Incoul's Misadventure. Benjamin & Bell.
Scherr, J. Letzte Gänge. 2d ed. Stuttgart: W. Spemann; New York: Westermann.
Simon, Jules. Victor Cousin. Paris: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof.
Spence, Exell and Neill. Thirty Thousand Christian Thoughts. Vol. V. Christian Dogmatics, Concluded. Funk & Wagnalls. $3.50.
Spencer, Mrs. G. E. Dennis Day, Carpet-Bagger. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Swinburne, A. C. Select Poems. Worthington Co. $1.50.
Thackeray, W. M. The Fitz-Boodle Papers. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 50 cents.
Tidy, Dr. C. M. The Treatment of Sewage. D. Van Nostrand. 50 cents.
Tolstoi, Count L. N. Ivan Ilyitch, and Other Stories. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Tolstoi, Count L. N. Sebastopol. Harper & Brothers.
Vasili, Comte Paul. La Société de Paris: I. Le Grand Monde. Paris: *Nouvelle Revue*; Boston: Schoenhof.
Verne, Jules. Nord contre Sud. 1re partie. Paris: Hetzel; New York: Christern.
"V. R.": A Novel. Harper & Brothers. 15 cents.
Yonge, Charlotte M. Under the Storm; or, Steadfast's Charge. Thomas Whittaker. $1.50.

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